

The Historical Outlook

Continuing

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The Historical Outlook

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READERS AND TEACHERS OF HISTORY AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine

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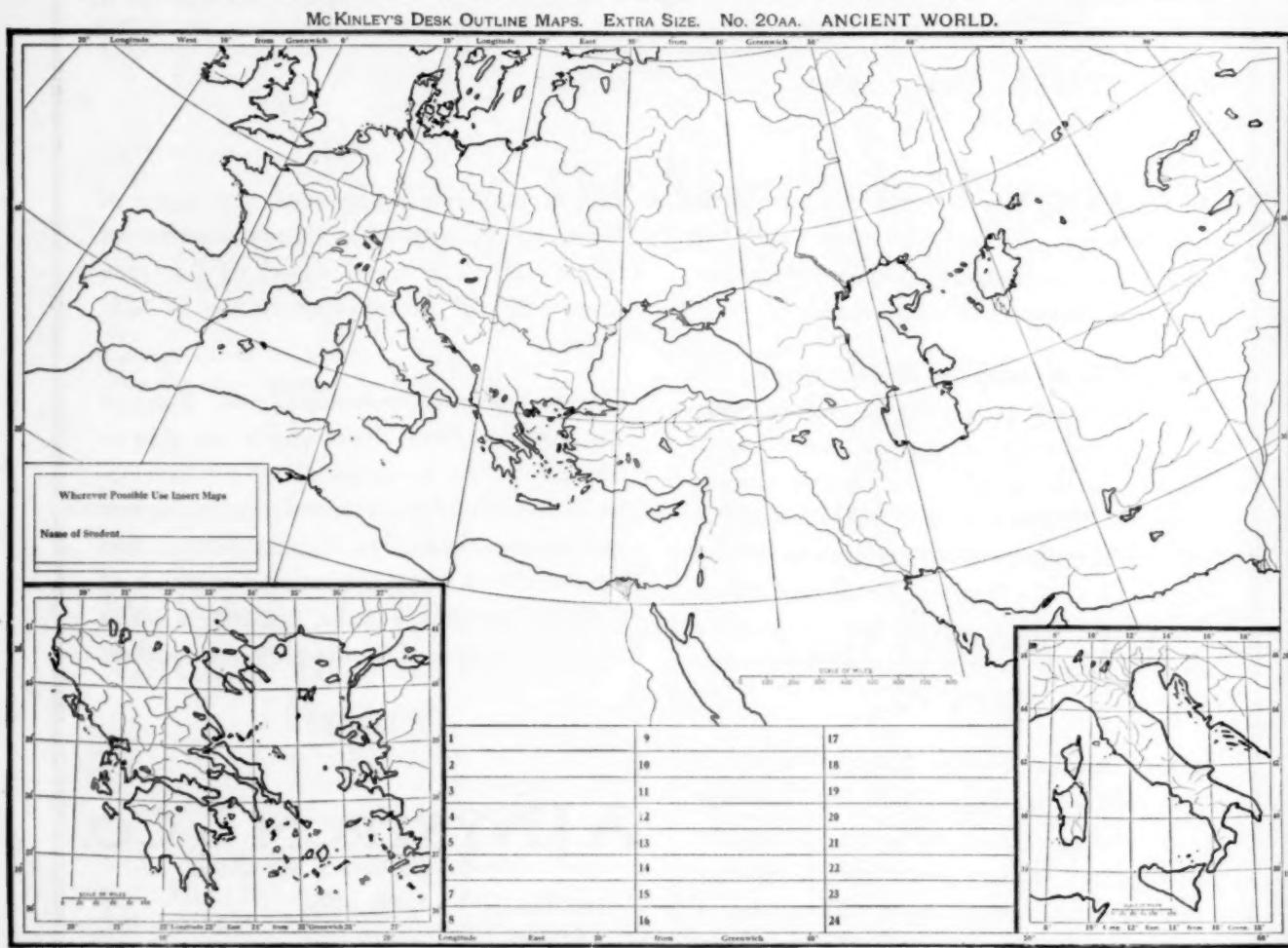
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The New Era in World History

BY PROFESSOR WILLIAM E. LINGELBACH, UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA

The term *New Era* is not used for want of a better term, but because it describes more clearly than any other words can the revolutionary developments in the civilization of the race in the last hundred and fifty years. To speak of it as the contemporary period is to sacrifice a suggestive title which in this case is of real significance. Nothing short of the new era, with the emphasis on the *new*, adequately suggests the nature of contemporary civilization, an age of science and invention, with its machines of iron driven not by man or horse-power, but by steam, gas, or electricity.

Viewed from the standpoint of man's control over his environment, and the developments associated with it, greater changes have appeared in the basis of civilization in the last one hundred and fifty years than in the hundreds of thousands of years that went before. This is all the more striking, when it is recalled that within the last half century science has added nearly a million years to the time of man's sojourn here on earth, giving us an entirely new chronology of his early history. Since the publication of Darwin's "Descent of Man," the dawn of civilization, which had been for many years confidently associated with the creation as described in Genesis and placed at about 7000 B. C., has been pushed far back into the remote past. In the light of the concepts of the new geology, the new anthropology and the new astro-physics, the old chronology is now hopelessly antiquated.

This enormous expansion of our conception of the age of the human race furnishes new and heretofore unknown opportunities in the teaching of world history. Properly taught, it brings out, as no other course can, the continuity of history; that fundamental law of all human progress which postulates the genetic value of the processes of civilization. It shows further that nothing vital remains static or fixed; that the life of the race is constantly changing, and that the process, in all probability, follows quite as definite and inexorable laws as does the growth and decay of plants in the field of biology.

But if this evolution of civilization can be best seen against the background of the broad sweep of world history, it is also true that the successive periods in the development can appear in their true perspective only when projected on such a background. Their essential unity can then be brought out without the danger, still all too common, of treating them as if they were separated into watertight compartments with boundaries clearly defined. Even the new era,

with all its far-reaching and revolutionary changes, must be presented as the product of the past and in harmony with the perspective of world history.

Despite the fact that the patterns of society and of human behavior of the new era are unique, differing widely from anything that has gone before, they are none the less the direct descendants of what existed in earlier days. The changes from the old to the new in recent times are, to be sure, much more rapid and more marked, but, in a last analysis, they, too, are the product of that evolutionary process which dominates the whole course of human history.

THE UNITY OF SUCCESSIVE PERIODS OF WORLD HISTORY

In the face of this it would seem unfortunate at first thought to give special emphasis to the essential unity of any particular period of history. But the progress of civilization moves forward in cycles or long periods of apparent inactivity, followed by shorter periods of rapid and clearly defined change, intermediate stages sometimes called periods of transition. Leaving out of consideration prehistoric times, the history of the western world is usually divided into three great periods—the ancient, the medieval, and the modern. The justifications for this are known to every teacher of history. Each of these periods is marked by a certain sameness in institutions, customs and conditions of life that differentiate it from the others.¹

INDUSTRY AND COMMERCE IN THE NEW ERA

In the second half of the eighteenth century, however, new and unknown forces were introduced into the life of the race that were destined in the short space of less than two hundred years to transform civilization in many of its most important phases. Moreover the changes that have been brought about go to the very foundations, not of the economic and social order of society only, but of the political as well. If there is any doubt on this score it can be easily set at rest by contrasting the conditions of western civilization of the early eighteenth century with those of our own day. On all sides there will be found evidence and illustration of a transformation as radical and deep-seated as it has been rapid and irresistible; an age of transition which is still in progress, but in which the main outlines of a new order are already clearly discernible.

The dynamic forces of the New Era played no part in the civilization of the early periods. As late

as 1815, when the powers were remaking the map of Europe after the overthrow of Napoleon, they gave no thought to coal or iron ore deposits; they knew nothing of oil or electricity. At the Paris Conference in 1919 these affected many of the most important provisions of the peace treaties. In less than a century they have been developed to drive the wheels of our industries and of our commerce and to cultivate our fields.

It has been facetiously said that all history might logically be divided into two parts. The first, the period before January, 1769, when Watt invented the steam engine; the second, the hundred and fifty odd years since. While this is, of course, absurd, the suggestion serves to bring out the revolutionary nature of our machine age with its improved tools and applied power. After Watt's successes with the steam engine, scores of new and important inventions followed in rapid succession. In 1785 the first steam mill was built; in 1790 Arkwright used the steam engine for his cotton mills, and the application of steam to industry went on apace. Foreigners traveling in England at the opening of the century were amazed. "It is hardly an exaggeration," wrote one of them in 1802, "to say that in England these machines are as common as water wheels and windmills in our country."

In 1785 the authorities of the port of Liverpool seized eight bales of cotton, shipped from the United States, because it was argued that so great a quantity of cotton could not be raised in the United States. In 1921 the table of cotton production in this country credits us with 12,977,000 bales. The cotton gin was not invented till 1793. Its influence on cotton production and the cotton industry, therefore, belongs to the nineteenth century.

In industry and manufacturing the changes wrought in the first century of the new era present an amazing contrast with the conditions that preceded and which had practically remained stationary for thousands of years. Save in England and a few favored spots on the continent the handtool and the handloom were still in use everywhere; domestic industry closely associated with agriculture was the rule. Franklin, like Gutenberg, set his type by hand, and his hand press could print 2,000 sheets a day. In 1924 a big Hoe press printed and folded 96,000 twelve-page papers in an hour. The gigantic newspaper business of today with its great advertising and news gathering agencies is the product of the last fifty or sixty years.

Traveling and transportation had not changed materially throughout the centuries from ancient to modern times; it was on precisely the same basis at the opening of the nineteenth century as it was when Alexander conquered the East. Napoleon was no better off in this respect than was Caesar. The Roman could get from Paris to Rome just as quickly and quite as comfortably as could Bonaparte. Man was still obliged to use his legs or the horse to get from place to place on land, and to use the wind or oars at sea.

Books of travel of the first half of the last century are loud in their complaint against the postchaise, the prevalent mode of travel. Of the creaking and jolting of the clumsy vehicle as it was dragged by relays of horses over bad dirt roads there was no end, and the long suffering passengers emerged stiff, worn out, and often ill. Indeed, the postchaise, like the sleeping cars of our day, was the favorite butt of the wits of the time. "The chaise is strongly recommended for funerals," says one writer, "because of its slow tempo and the terrible shaking which could not but bring the corpse back to life if there was a spark of life left." It was just about a hundred years ago that Trevithick built his first locomotive to which he gave the picturesque name, "Catch-me-if-you-can." It made the enormous speed of twelve miles an hour. Today it and like engines are objects of curiosity in our museums, and when one considers the high speed with which we are now transforming our civilization, one wonders whether our children will not look upon the "Spirit of St. Louis" and the dramatic aerial flight of our day with the same feeling of superiority.

Even as late as the first half of the nineteenth century there was written into the life insurance policy of Daniel Webster a clause which stipulated that if the insured entered Canada, crossed the Mississippi, or went to Europe the contract would be void. The company could not take the risk. In Napoleon's day, and for many years afterwards, men still used the old semaphore system, watch fires, signal guns or riders like Paul Revere to speed up the sending of news. From Paris to Calais, a distance of fifty-two miles, there were thirty-three signal stations and, weather being favorable, a short message could be relayed in three minutes. The radio waves of the new era span the earth in a second carrying not merely ideas, but sound and images as well.

Benjamin Franklin, in returning from England in 1762, took eighty days to make the sea voyage. Conditions of travel by sea were precisely the same in 1826, three-quarters of a century later. Fulton's success with steam navigation on the Hudson, like that of Fitch on the Delaware, occurred only a little over a century ago. The former offered his plans for the steam propelled boat to Napoleon who was at the time drilling his vast army at Boulogne, supposedly for the descent upon England, but his advisors of the Institute reported adversely on the plans of the American. In 1838, and for years thereafter, men still questioned the feasibility of ocean transport by steam, despite the voyage of the "Great Western" and "Sirius." Long after the introduction of steam navigation, the annual tonnage of wooden vessels continued to increase more rapidly than did that of the steamship. Not till the Bessemer process was invented, and with it cheap steel, did the age of the modern steamship really begin.

When Franklin was Postmaster General for the colonies, he is credited by his biographer with organizing the first penny posts, permitting newspapers to go by mail and also by speeding things up to such a

point that he got the mails from Boston to New York in the remarkable time of six days.

The railroads of the first half of the nineteenth century had in them great potentialities, but they were largely limited to passenger traffic and carried very little freight in those days. Since the Civil War freight has become the most important part of their business. In 1890 the railroad ton mileage was a little over seventy-five billion tons. Thirty years later, in 1920, it reached the enormous figure of four hundred and ten billion tons.

In 1896 there were four weird looking horseless carriages in use. Today there are literally millions. By 1900 the automobile had become practical. Today it is the third means of transportation in the country and the first, in its influence on the social life of the people. The automobile industry, almost unknown twenty years ago, has grown by leaps and bounds, till today over three million cars are manufactured annually in this country alone, the motor business amounting annually to billions of dollars. In 1927 General Motors Corporation not only became a leader of the securities market, but earned two hundred and thirty-five millions for the stockholders. Henry Ford was a puttering mechanic when the twentieth century opened. In 1905 his possessions consisted of a small shack employing a dozen workmen. In two decades he became the richest man in the world, his personal profits in 1920 amounting to \$50,000,000.

That we are on the eve of a development in aerial navigation and transport far more startling still is already evident. The authorized mileage scheduled for the 1928 air mail routes of the United States alone is over 8,000,000 miles. To predict future developments in this field would lead into the realm of prophecy. Indeed, nothing short of prophecy, born of supreme faith in human achievement, can keep up with the astounding advances day by day in science and invention. They far surpass the most extravagant dreams of the writers of our Utopias.

A little over twenty-five years ago the redoubtable Mr. Wells, whose imagination certainly is not lacking in boldness, ventured the prediction in a book called "Anticipation," that by 1950 there would be heavier than air flying machines, capable of practical use in war. Before a quarter of a century had elapsed, that is in half the time, the author's scientific dreams became an amazing reality. Even Mr. Wells in his wildest imagination did not see a lone man flying through storm and darkness from New York to Paris in a little over thirty hours. Twenty years after Walter and Wilbur Wright achieved the unbelievable feat of staying in the air an hour, aviators have circled the earth, crossed the North Pole and flown the Atlantic in both directions.

Commercial flying is an established fact. Scores of companies operate fleets of airplanes for freight and passenger service. The spectacular flight of the "Graf Zeppelin" from its hangar in Germany to Lakehurst, New Jersey, in a non-stop flight of over 6,000 miles has demonstrated the feasibility of air

navigation between Europe and the American continent. The giant airship being constructed by the British on the lines of the Zeppelin at a cost of two and one-half millions is planned to carry a hundred passengers and tons of freight from England to Canada in thirty hours. Like the giant ocean liners it is being constructed partly by government subsidy, and the monster airship may quite properly be regarded as an advanced unit of a great air fleet. Along with airplanes and airplane carriers the airship is revolutionizing the whole system of naval and land warfare.

THE AGRICULTURE OF THE NEW ERA

While the new machines and the application of power were thus transforming industry and commerce, agriculture, which had remained almost static for centuries, at last also came under the influence of the new forces. Although it made its appearance later, the revolution in agriculture is quite as important and far-reaching in its results. It affected directly more than three-fourths of the entire human race, which, until recent years, made its living by cultivating the soil. What is more, they were doing it by hand labor in just the same way in 1800 as did their ancestors for ages past. Palaeolithic conditions prevailed in agriculture right down into the new era. The tools of agriculture—"the bread tools"—were simple, and called in their use upon the energy supplied by man or beasts. The McCormick reaper, the threshing machine and the modern tractor, have wrought a veritable revolution in this oldest and most universal of all the occupations of man. As a result, one man can today cultivate and sow an acre of ground in one-fifteenth the time it took in 1830. Similarly it is estimated that the time required for reaping, threshing and sacking the crop for market is today not one twenty-fifth of that required in the earlier period. In other words, the labor of one man with the aid of the new machinery is today about equal to the work of twenty men with the old "bread tools" of a hundred years ago.

The importance of this fact is too often neglected in our study of the transition from the old to the new economy or, for that matter, in our discussion of farm relief. Agriculture is undergoing a great transformation. Agricultural labor, including the small farmer, is the victim of a great social and economic adjustment, parallel in many respects to that of the domestic manufacturer of a century ago. Farm machinery and scientific agriculture enable a much smaller number of farmers to raise the food stuffs necessary for modern society. The surplus labor and the surplus farmer are, therefore, driven from the farms just as relentlessly as they were by the enclosures of the past. "The old-fashioned farm," says Mr. Ford, "is small business in a country of big business." The results are apparent, not only in the discontent of the agricultural regions, but in a startling shift in the population. A few years ago statisticians still distributed the populations of this country about equally between town and country. If we take the

basis of the urban unit to be 2,500 instead of 5,000, the facts of the situation are startlingly different. Instead of a population distributed about fifty-fifty between the town and country it corresponds more nearly to a ratio of 75 to 25.

Farming is becoming an industrialized occupation, calling for capital, specialized training, managerial ability, intelligent study of soils, crops, and markets. The last in particular is difficult, because of another condition of the new era, which is increasing in importance year by year. It is the fact that the market for agricultural products, like that of our manufacturers, is today a world market. The return in a particular year to the English farmer for his wheat, his mutton, or beef is closely related to, almost dependent on, the wheat crop in Canada and the United States, or to the grazing conditions in Australia or the Argentine.

WIDE MARKETS AND BUSINESS ORGANIZATION

But this world market in agricultural products is not unique. It pertains in the interchange of nearly all other commodities. The flow of commerce between the most distant points of the earth is no longer seasonal and sporadic, but all year round and continuous. Everywhere it seeks out the best markets and the highest prices. Whether it be wheat, coal, copper, rubber, or silk, it is the price differential, cheapness of labor, or motive power that determines its direction. Hence American coal may be shipped to Newcastle or English coal to Pittsburgh, French or Italian raw silk to the silk mills of Pennsylvania, African copper to Germany, and American automobiles to Ireland, Holland, Egypt, and Japan.

The vast increase in the powers of production and consumption has brought about a new system of business and banking organization. The technology of production and distribution of the new era called for new and larger corporations and financial institutions. Combinations of gigantic proportions, like the United States Steel Corporation, or the General Motors Corporation, have been organized. Huge mergers bringing about co-ordination, co-operation, and increased efficiency are matters of daily occurrence.

Another result of the increased powers of production has been a fabulous increase of wealth. Financial institutions commensurate in size with the fabulous wealth of the new era arose in direct response to the new conditions. Banking firms with capital undreamed of a generation ago can now be numbered by the score. Several generations ago men talked in terms of millions. Today they talk and do business in terms of billions. An investment market unprecedented in character, including the securities of hundreds of corporations, has been established. Safe and mobile systems of credit, both national and international, have been created. These are rapidly making for a great system of world finance, interdependent, interlocking, and international in its operation. Certain large American banking houses exercise greater influence on the international affairs

of Europe today than do many of the small, so-called sovereign states. Capital has become more fluid even than the commodities of commerce. In a sense it is the life blood of the new world organism which science and invention have conjured up.

PHENOMENAL CHANGES IN POPULATION IN THE NEW ERA

Closely associated with the new agriculture and the new industrial life of the new era are the extraordinary movements in the world's population. First and of supreme importance is the phenomenal increase or growth of population in nearly all parts of the world. In 1800 the estimated population of the world was about 640,000,000. Today it is approximately 1,900,000,000 or more than double. The population of Europe at the close of the Napoleonic wars was approximately 175,000,000. Today it is over 480,000,000. What is more, it continues to increase despite the fact that in some countries it has become stationary. The world's vital statistics still record one hundred and fifty thousand births each twenty-four hours to one hundred thousand deaths. Whatever, therefore, the number of souls on the earth today, there will be 50,000 more tomorrow. This ponderable increase in the number of people on what Voltaire long ago called "this little grain of dust," is causing a constantly increasing pressure of population upon the means of subsistence, and creating new economic and social problems of very serious import.

The second phase of the population movement is even more characteristic of the new era. It is the enormous increase in the size of our urban communities. In practically all the countries of the Western hemisphere the tide of migration to the cities is in full swing. The movement was first felt in England, then in Belgium, and Germany, and now it is strikingly evident in our own country. The number and size of the cities of the world is steadily increasing. Indeed, this gathering of the population in the cities and the consequent predominance of the city over the country in our national life is itself a unique characteristic of the civilization of the new era. Out of it have arisen, not only the complicated problems of modern municipal life, but a new social outlook, utterly foreign to the agriculture economy of former ages.² More than any other single phenomenon, unless it be the conquest of distance, the modern city reflects the essential characteristics of the new era.

EMIGRATION IN THE NEW ERA

The third phase of the movement of population in the new era is seen in the great tide of emigration from Europe. At times the stream has risen to the proportions of a flood. In 1907, and again in 1914, a million and a quarter emigrants came to this country alone. During other years in the decades before the great war the numbers annually fell little short of a million. The migration of the Germanic tribes at the beginning of the Middle Ages, so much stressed in European histories, shrinks in comparison with the colossal emigrations of our own time. They came from every country of Europe, bringing with them

their language, their customs and their views on social, political, and religious life. More than forty different national groups have thus been brought together in the American "melting-pot."

But the flow of emigrants from the Old World was not confined to the United States only. Literally millions have gone to the countries of Latin America, building up there a new civilization. In more recent years the problem has taken on a new form in the desire of the Yellow race, overcrowded and impoverished at home, for a share in the choice parts of the earth held by the white man. Millions in India, China, and Japan look with longing eyes to our more fortunate and attractive civilization. Never in the history of the race has there been so clear a recognition of the value of the physical habitat. Urged on by the pressure of poverty and of economic necessity, and aided by the new means of communication and of transportation, there has been brought about an intermingling of peoples and ideas without parallel or precedent.

PUBLIC HEALTH AND HYGIENE

Closely associated with the problems of population is the development of public health and sanitation associated with modern medicine. In theory this makes its appearance in the writings of eighteenth century, but its practical application belongs to the nineteenth. The advent of scientific medicine and its application to the needs of society is an outstanding feature of the new era. If the physical sciences of the new era are conquering distance, medical science has been no less successful in battling that age-old enemy of man, disease. Not only have cures been discovered for many ills, but preventive medicine now wards off disease. Public hygiene and sanitation have made the dreaded epidemics of history things of the past. Whole regions of the earth's surface, some of great fertility, and for centuries uninhabitable by the white man because of malaria and yellow fever have been made habitable. Many, like the malaria-infected Campagna about Rome, which once fed more than half a million people, are being reclaimed. The Panama Canal Zone, Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Philippines have been freed from the scourge of yellow fever.

This is a phase of the history of our time not sufficiently emphasized. Perhaps it is because it is all so very new. Till the results of Pasteur's work began to appear a little over a century ago, the microscopic world was unknown. That is, the scientific basis of modern medicine did not exist. Bacteria, those tiny giants with whom we are now so familiar, were working in obscurity, unobserved and unhindered. Pasteur discovered them, and as a result, the science of bacteriology has revolutionized not only medicine and public hygiene, but many other phases of modern life.

Anesthetics were not in general use when the Civil War began. Today the physical suffering of the race is largely under control. "Measure as we may," said Dr. Osler, "the progress of the world...there is no

one measure which can compare with the decrease of physical suffering in man, woman and child when stricken by disease or accident." Serums and antisepsics insure against lockjaw, and make recovery after accidents and operation more certain. Typhoid fever infected ninety per cent. of the army in the Spanish-American War, eighty-five per cent. of the deaths being attributed to it. In the World War, despite the vastly greater armies from all parts of the world, inoculation proved so successful that only a few cases developed. Without preventive medicine, the World War could not have been won. The worst of the infections and infantile diseases have been brought under control. Only cancer, influenza and to a certain extent tuberculosis continue to defy scientific medicine in its war upon disease. That they will long resist the bombardment of the X-ray and violet rays is doubtful.

No adequate picture of the extraordinary changes wrought in the life of the individual and of society as a whole in this field can be had unless one reads contemporary accounts like those by Sir John Symonds on conditions in England as late as the thirties and forties of the last century. Not only did indescribably filthy and dangerous conditions prevail everywhere, but men and women were doomed to excruciating pain and suffering without any hope of relief. Scientific medicine and surgery have brought human suffering on its physical side under control. With the aid of preventive medicine they have greatly reduced the death rate and made possible living together safely and comfortably in our great cities.

SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE NEW ERA

The new era is also unique on its political and social sides, despite the fact that here the changes have been less dramatic than in the spectacular advance in man's relationship to his physical environment. To a considerable degree, they are the result of the new forces which have brought about the revolution in industry. Out of it has come, on the one hand, the rise of the bourgeoisie and its control of the capitalistic state; on the other, the great labor population in all countries where modern industry has established itself. A great proletariat entirely dependent for its livelihood on the weekly pay envelope has been created. Both in its size and dependence it constitutes a new phenomenon in world history.

This state of economic dependence and relative poverty of millions of working people, on the one hand and of great wealth and power on the other, has led to the organization of the workers in the form of trade unions and the like, and to new political theories and practices. The theories of Adam Smith and the *laissez-faire* school seemed to become more and more inadequate as the Industrial Revolution progressed and factory legislation, nationalistic tariffs, and a steady extension of the functions of government in the economic and social life of the people became the rule. A new philosophy of society, known as Socialism, made its appearance, demand-

ing a fundamental change in the economic order by the socialization of the means of production and the abolition of the capitalistic state.

Under pressure of these demands, and more particularly, of the economic conditions of the new era, most governments have gone a long way not only in the supervision and regulation of economic relationships, but in actual ownership and operation of railroads and public utilities. Added to the factory laws and the protection of women and children, there have been developed comprehensive systems of social insurance, of relief for unemployment, of income, inheritance, and unearned increment taxes. More than this, in all civilized countries there has grown up during the past century and a half a movement toward a "New Humanity." It is reflected in an altruism in literature and polities, and in practical legislation on such matters as prison reform, the reform of the criminal code, slavery, child welfare, war on poverty, and the like.

THE GROWTH OF DEMOCRACY IN THE NEW ERA

In the meantime, the evolution of political democracy has also gone steadily forward. Its origins take us far back in history—to Magna Charta and beyond. Its demands were formulated in three revolutions at the thresholds of the new era—the English Revolution in 1688, the American Revolution in 1776, and the French Revolution in 1789. While the English dwelt strongly on specific grievances and rights, the European formulated the case of democracy along more general lines in a statement of principles. The Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen, of 1791, clearly formulated the principles of political democracy that were to prevail during the century that followed.

The formal adoption of these ideas and their incorporation into the institutions of the new era was a slow process. From the narrow franchise based on class or property qualifications, the western world has slowly extended the right to vote to more and more persons and groups. Today manhood suffrage, limited only by an age qualification, is the rule, and the more advanced democracies recognize woman suffrage also. The broad outlines of this interesting development are best illustrated by the successive parliamentary reform bills in England, by the franchise qualifications, and the press laws under the different governments of France from 1789 to 1871, and in the voting clauses and other provisions for democratic control in the post-war constitutions of Europe. The constitution of the new Germany extends the right to vote to men and women of twenty and over, that of Soviet Russia to men and women eighteen and over, while our own constitutional amendment grants the voting privilege to women on equality with men. Today this novel participation of women in public affairs is taken quite for granted. Less than a generation ago the mere idea was scouted even in progressive circles. So rapidly and completely have these changes occurred in the political world that men today hardly concern themselves any

more with liberty and freedom as these are associated with the ballot. These political rights have all been won and are taken for granted. Today questions of social justice, of equal opportunity for every man, woman and child to work and play, is the great issue.

Securing the right to vote and to share actively in the government, however, is only one evidence of the emancipation of the so-called weaker sex. Hand in hand with this has come the emancipation of woman from a state of legal inequality before her husband or father in matters of property, divorce, and moral standards. Even in the matter of dress the passing of the long full skirt, tight waist, and big hat in favor of the tunic and the short skirt with its greater freedom, bespeaks an emancipation undreamt of heretofore. Indeed, the extraordinary emancipation and enfranchisement of woman is only another step in the emancipation and enfranchisement of the great mass of the population male and female alike that has come about in the new era.

First in modern times came the emancipation of the serf, then, during the French Revolution and the early nineteenth century, the emancipation of the peasantry of Western Europe from the remains of serfdom, followed by the freeing of Russia's millions from serfdom in the sixties. Slavery and the inhuman traffic in negro slaves was also abolished during the century. As a result of this advance from servitude and slavery to freedom and equality of rights, the population of the world has, through successive emancipations, become politically and socially free. At the same time it has become, in one sense at least, economically free also. Like the other commodities of the new era, population and labor have become fluid.

EDUCATION OF THE NEW ERA

Along with this has also come the emancipation of the child, first from labor, and second from ignorance. The movement is far from complete, but the right of the child to an education is now recognized, in principle at least, in all civilized countries. Popular education and the attack upon ignorance and illiteracy, which prevailed among more than eighty per cent. of the race at the opening of the last century, has moved forward with astounding rapidity. Acting on the principle that democracy means equality of opportunity, and that society owes to every child the opportunity to obtain an education, progressive peoples of the world have established marvelous systems of education in which instruction is not only free, but compulsory. The outward evidence of this is seen in the magnificent public schools dominating our cities, towns, and countryside. The size of the educational budget of any of our large cities is today larger by far than the sums spent by entire nations on public education a century ago.

Unhappily the claims of women for a higher education received no recognition for a long time. The well-known law for public schools in France in 1833 made no provisions for girls, a situation that was not remedied till many years later. As for the

higher education of women, that did not come until considerably later. In the year the United States won its independence, one Lucinda Foote was examined "in the learned languages, the Latin, and the Greek." It was found that she had made "commendable progress," being able to give the "true meaning of passages in the Aeneid of Virgil, the Select Orations of Cicero, and in the Greek Testament." She was, therefore, declared "fully qualified except as to sex, to be received as a pupil of the Freshman class of Yale University." But her sex excluded her, and for several generations girls, even of Lucinda Foote's ability, could not get a higher education. Today, there is co-education in the greater number of the institutions of higher education in this country, and a whole group of fine women's colleges grace the list of the eight or nine hundred colleges and universities of the United States. The universities of Europe and even some in the Islamic world now admit women.

Hand in hand with the growth of education for all classes has come the development of the modern newspaper, with its huge circulation, its many educational features and its great news gathering agencies. Here, too, the characteristic tendency of the age toward large scale organization and production is much in evidence. The little octavo newspaper of 1800 with its belated news, and absence of all advertising matter, forms a striking contrast to the bulky papers of our time with their formidable array of classified advertising, sensational headlines and news features, and sadly depressed editorial comment. But despite many weaknesses the modern press, including magazines and other forms of popular literature, and more recently the radio, form the most powerful agency yet devised for the transformation of the sleepy, unprogressive, and very much localized population of the world into one great community, giving it, in a sense at least, a common basis of information and knowledge. The radio now enables the English or the Germans to listen in on Paris, or the Frenchman on London or Berlin. We have just been "hooked-up" with twenty foreign states. Plainly there is in the radio an altogether novel and powerful influence for the development of a world community.

NATIONALITY IN THE NEW ERA

How far this will affect the nationalism of our time is yet to be determined. With its sister, democracy, nationality has been one of the outstanding forces of the life of the last hundred and fifty years. In its modern manifestations it belongs distinctly to the new era. With one or two exceptions, states were still organized on the old basis in 1789. Kings ruled by divine right and the state was identified with the sovereign. The concept of the sovereignty of the people had been formulated by the philosophers of the eighteenth century, but its acceptance was confined mainly to England and America. In Europe the idea of the nation in the modern sense, with its passionate patriotism, appeared first in the French

Revolution. The abstract statement of the concept appeared in the Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen, but it remained for the Decree for the *Levy en Masse* of 1793 to reveal its potential appeal and power.

"From this moment until that in which the enemy shall have been driven from the soil of the Republic," says this ringing decree, "all Frenchmen are in permanent requisition for the services of the army...."

"The young men shall go to battle; the married men shall forge arms and transport provisions; the women shall make tents and clothing and shall serve in the hospitals; the children shall turn old linen into lint; the aged shall betake themselves to the public places in order to arouse the courage of the warriors and preach the hatred of kings and the unity of the Republic...."

Here we get the spirit of nationality which readily passes from its purely defensive mood into one of aggression. Space prevents any discussion of its extraordinary manifestations in the many transformations it has wrought since 1793. Suffice it to say, that out of the intense desires and ambitions of one people after another there have emerged from the monarchical state system of the world at the opening of the nineteenth century, fourteen new nations in Europe, and seventeen in Latin America, a Commonwealth of British Nations in place of the British Empire, a new Ireland, a new Japan, a new Turkey, and aspiring or potential nationalities throughout the entire Islamic world. Japan has become a thoroughly modern nation since the middle of the last century. The great empire of China with its millions is awakening, stirred in its remotest parts by the forces of western civilization.

The results of the carefully planned and effective propaganda for democracy and the right of self-determination during the war are bearing fruit in unexpected quarters. Together with science and invention it is contributing powerfully to the breaking down and disintegration of the age-old faiths and institutions of the Near and Far East. The University of Cairo, for generations the center from which the ideas and beliefs of Islam radiated to the most distant parts of the Mohammedan world, now has 5,000 students instead of the former 25,000. The young men of Islam are demanding science and more constructive religion than the negations of the finely spun tenets of the Dervishes. The automobile, the airplane, and tourists from Western countries are fast becoming familiar objects in these lands. As a result of the impact of the forces of the new era upon the relatively static culture and beliefs of the East, a deep and powerful revolution is being wrought among the peoples of the Orient that is destined to exercise the most far-reaching results.

In the meantime, Africa has been partitioned and those portions of the world not already annexed before the World War are now held under mandates. Economic imperialism has developed in response to the new capitalistic state with its enormous industrial and commercial organization. Still intensely nationalistic it adheres to high tariffs and militarism.

STILL ON THE THRESHOLD OF THE NEW ERA

That the revolutionary changes in the civilization of the world are only well started, is evident. Even in the limited field of the industrial revolution where the transformations occurred first, so competent an observer as Henry Ford says: "We are just on the threshold....of the industrial and comfortable age." On all sides there is intense activity. The new forces of nature discovered yesterday are called upon to push forward the investigation of today and tomorrow, prying still further into her secrets, and laying bare new sources of power and of wealth. Scientists tell us that we are only well started in our advance along these lines. Research in the physical sciences is working to better purpose every day. There is no limit to the money and the means at the disposal of the men who are searching the mysteries of nature. The world is sold to the physical sciences. Literally millions are given annually to research in physics, chemistry, botany, zoology, and medicine. The various departments of national governments, industrial and commercial organizations, special foundations and universities have not only organized the work, but are enlisting the most promising young men and women to carry on the great crusade.

According to the statements of our leading scientists, the discoveries in the physical sciences in recent years have laid the basis to carry us far beyond anything that has yet been accomplished. The atom, the smallest thing heretofore known to science, is being dissected into its component parts—the central proton and the electrons. Sober-minded scholars are agog over the potentialities of the new discoveries. According to the eminent physicist, Professor Millikan, "we are on the threshold of a new age in the realm of physics....the Newtonian era is at an end" and only by the greatest stretch of the imagination can we appreciate even in a small way the possibilities of the near future. The theory of relativity and the quantum theory in chemistry, along with the electrical theory of energy in the atom, create a new basis for investigation in the physical sciences. Those essential qualities of matter, gravitation, and inertia, have been pushed aside and subordinated to the new concept of energy.

A short time ago the President of the American Chemical Association, speaking of the successful experiments in dividing and transmuting the atom, indulged in prophesies that would startle the world, were it not for the fact that the achievements of modern science have become almost a commonplace with our generation.

"We know," he said, "that the atom consists of unthinkable amounts of bound-up energy. They are like a Jack-in-the-box. When we learn to touch the button, the energy will spring out and we can use it. There will be a limitless supply of energy which will make over the world." "There will be"—and please note I am quoting not a writer of fiction, but a sober scientist—"There will be," he says, "a new chemistry and a new world to live in."

A few months ago, Rear Admiral Bullard, the United States Government Director of Air Traffic, said: "I firmly believe that power will soon be transmitted by radio as a by-product of beam transmission." As a result there will be cities illuminated without wires, and airplanes, battleships, street cars and other forms of transport operated by radio; opera and the drama in all the gorgeous coloring of nature in our own homes, and university courses by radio in a universal language, preferably English. The radio beam will be used not only to transmit power and unlock new sources of power, but to arrest power already in operation."

THE CHALLENGE TO THE SOCIAL SCIENCES

The poet not only voices the "glorious achievements of man in his struggle with the physical world, but beautifully suggests the still greater triumphs that lie before him in the future. To the student of the Social Sciences, however, there is much room for reflection. How will man make use of his conquests, and the new forces which science is placing at his disposal? Man's advance has progressed along three distinct lines. First, there is the development of his own physical and mental faculties; second, his conquest and subjugation of nature and, third, the development and improvement of political and social institutions and their adaptation to new conditions. Unfortunately the third or last line of advance lags far behind the second. It has not progressed to keep abreast of the advance made in the physical sciences during the new era. The world seems to be content with institutions that grew up under an agricultural economy and hopelessly antiquated in this age of science and the machine.

The inadequacy of our political and social system in this modern industrial and economic order is only too evident. There is demoralization in much of our national life; disrespect for law, attended by violence and crime in many of the large centers of popularity. Old standards are abandoned, and with it all, there is an amazing indifference on the part of the average citizen to his responsibility in public affairs. The tendency to leave things to the politician is all too common. A curious faith in the efficacy of legislation and more legislation exists in all countries, particularly in our own. The result is seen in a veritable outpouring of laws by our State and National Legislatures. According to Professor Munro there are no fewer than "20,000 laws relating to the railroads alone." We increase the number of our laws at the rate of about 10,000 a year. "It takes no fewer," says the same writer, "than one hundred and twenty-five printed volumes to hold our biennial output of statutes, not to speak of almost as many more to contain the decisions of the courts interpreting these statutes....The zeal of the American democracy for making laws has been matched by a lack of success in enforcing them."

With the extension of the franchise to millions of men and women, the dangers have for the moment been increased rather than diminished. For universal

suffrage in itself is not and never will be a panacea for political and social ills. Extreme democracy is right in theory, but in practice it can be very bad. The problems of government in relation to the new era and, back of that, the questions of human behavior toward public affairs, lack altogether that scientific study so characteristic of our age in matters relating to the physical sciences. There is urgent need of a clear definition of objectives in the field of the social studies.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS A DANGER ZONE

But if the problems of the democracies at home are serious, those confronting them abroad are even more so. Before the World War, a state of anarchy prevailed in the relations between the nations of the world, especially of Europe. Today, despite the admirable work of the League of Nations, international relations are unfortunately still in somewhat the same condition. Enormous and increasingly destructive armaments continue. Secret diplomacy shows its head, as in the Anglo-French naval accord, with menacing threats. Chauvinists seem to be as numerous as before the war, despite the terrible dangers of a new war. The next war, if it comes, will so far surpass the last in its agencies of destruction and power for causing human suffering that it makes the imagination reel. Commenting on this the Chancellor of the British Exchequer and former First Lord of the Admiralty Winston H. Churchill, says: "It is established that henceforward whole populations will take part in war, all doing their utmost, all subjected to the fury of the enemy. It is established that nations which believe their life is at stake will not be restrained from using any means to secure their existence. It is probable—nay, certain—that among the means which will next time be at their disposal will be agencies and processes of destruction, wholesale, unlimited, and perhaps, once launched, uncontrollable; blight to destroy crops, anthrax to slay horses and cattle, plague to poison not only armies, but whole districts—such are the lines along which military science is remorselessly advancing."

"It has been rather our tendency up to the present," said Major General Swinton, of the British army, "to look upon warfare from the retail point of view—killing men by fifties or hundreds or thousands. But when you speak of gas, you must remember that you are discussing a weapon which must be considered from the wholesale point of view. We may not be so very far from the development of some kinds of lethal ray which will shrivel up or paralyze or poison human beings. The final form of human strife, as I regard it, is germ warfare. I think it will come to that; and so far as I can see, there is no reason why it should not, if you mean to fight. Study the waging of war on a wholesale scale instead of thinking so much about methods which will kill a few individuals only at a time."

The gruesomeness of this strikes most of us as utterly pagan and barbaric. But if we mean to fight

we cannot sit by and wait till war is upon us. The men to whom we entrust the development of our weapons cannot neglect any, even the deadliest. Indeed, many of them, knowing better than any layman the potentialities of another war, are themselves earnest advocates of a new order. Formerly there were rules of war, but today war defies all restraint.

THE UNITED STATES IN THE NEW ERA

The place of our country in the new world community is likewise novel and revolutionary. From a debtor nation of two and one-half billions of dollars before the war, we have become a creditor nation to the extent of fourteen billion dollars. What is more, the process not only continues, but gathers momentum. In the nine years following the World War our total exports amounted to forty-seven billion dollars as against thirty-six billion dollars in imports, leaving a favorable trade balance of nine billion. This amount corresponds almost equally to the amount invested abroad during this period by our citizens through our large banking houses. In other words, we are helping the European to pay for our surplus commodities which he is buying from us, by lending him money or buying his stocks and bonds. From these annually we get in turn large sums in dividends.

The surplus capital which we are thus rapidly building up is again obliged to find reinvestment abroad and with each dollar so invested we are linked that much more closely to the rest of the world. Foreign investments always demand protection. "Where one's treasure is there one's heart is," is a truism that applies to nations as well as individuals. We are not in the League of Nations, but we are becoming more and more vitally interested in the economic rehabilitation of Europe and, therefore, in the problems of the League. The isolation of our past history is antiquated and gone forever. Our great wealth, national resources, and rapidly expanding trade, the energy of our people and our idealism, despite certain reactionary tendencies, are pushing us irresistibly into world affairs.

CONCLUSION

With incredible rapidity a new world community has been called into existence. New engines of production, of transport, and distribution, new instruments for the transmission of thought and the conveyance of messages and a general extension of common ideals and ambitions among all peoples, are making of the human race one great world community. Its respective parts are becoming more and more interdependent, penetrated by economic, social, and intellectual forces from without. National exclusiveness in the old sense is becoming more and more difficult to maintain.

At the same time the causes for conflict are as great, even greater, than before the last war. The pressure of population and the competition in the world markets of today is bearing ever more heavily on the standard of living of millions of people. National jealousies and discontent are as intense and as widespread as formerly. Unless a new world

order is also established in the political realm, statesmen will be driven by these irresistible forces to seek relief by war and conquest. The need of international co-operation and the settlement of international disputes by pacific means is today an imperative necessity. The course in World history properly taught must develop this and along with it, what for want of a better term, may be called a world-consciousness.

Darwin supplied the natural sciences with a common denominator in his theory of evolution. The Social Sciences can find no better. In the great task of integrating and synthetizing the complicated forces and tendencies of our age the one principle that is common to them all is the evolutionary character of social institutions. Looking at the progress of the race in this light, the development of a universal political world order is as certain as is the evolutionary process itself.

Further, the story of man's marvelous conquest of nature and the evidence of his ability to advance through his own efforts suggest that the responsibility to accelerate the process rests largely on his own shoulders. Through the discoveries in science man is now consciously widening the scope of his life, breaking the chains that have hitherto tied him and rapidly making over his physical and biological environment. Social and political institutions must be developed, not alone to preserve what the sciences have and will give us, but also to develop social and political institutions of a nature that will utilize the great gains in civilization to the best advantage and greatest happiness of all. The new era has discovered giant forces of nature ready to serve us. The skill of man is daily inventing new machines for harnessing them to do the work of mankind. It remains for us to give wise direction and purposeful objectives to the new forces.

¹The most familiar example of this unity of particular periods of history is that of the Middle Ages. For centuries together there continued a similarity in the institutions, the philosophy, and the dynamic forces of the civilization of this period. There was a fundamental similarity of ideals and aims. There was one universal church, with its unity of faith, of doctrine, of law, and of polity. The theory of government remained the same for centuries. There was a common language for the learned; Latin was the tongue of all educated persons and of the schools. The medieval universities in whatever country they were located were the same in organization, in the language of instruction, in the types of professors and students. There was uniformity of curriculum, whether one studied at Oxford, Paris, or Bologna. The university man knew no country. He migrated from one to the other with the utmost ease and freedom. He spoke the same language, got the same stuff in his lectures and in the books he read. When he entered upon his profession, whether it was theology, law, or medicine, he carried the Latin with him. Private and state business were recorded in the Latin tongue.

More important still was the uniformity of the economic and social life of these centuries. Society was the same in every country. There were the nobles, the clergy, artisans, and peasants. The last making up more than four-fifths of the population. All, or nearly all, were still bound to the soil. Each class had its distinctive dress, its distinctive occupations and rôle in the social and economic order. Privileged and unprivileged were sharply divided from each other.

Politically, the states of the period were all of one kind, the taxes and the services were the same; justice, law, and order were administered in the same way. The medieval state was the same everywhere, organized on the same pattern and governed the same way, and in Western Europe, at least, there stood above them all the ghost, if not the reality, of the Holy Roman Empire.

²It is worth noting, however, that the centralization of populations in our cities is already being partly corrected by an opposing tendency, based on improved urban transportation and the distribution of power through electricity. As a result, people are no longer compelled to live under the shadow of their factory, but can distribute themselves more widely throughout the urban area.

A New Social Function for History*

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It is the purpose of this essay to do two things: first, to give a statement of a social problem which I have named "The Problem of Discontinuous Traditions," and second, to show that in meeting this problem, history has developed a new social function to which I have applied the term "The Translation of Tradition."

I. THE PROBLEM OF DISCONTINUOUS TRADITIONS

Ethnologists have observed that there is a "tendency of specific culture traits to persist in one geographical locality, regardless of racial and even linguistic change in the population."¹ For instance, what one may almost call the cult of Boston baked beans and brown bread is a case in point: one may go to some places remote from Boston where a race that once dwelt in New England has begun to forget the tradition; or one may get the real thing in

Boston from people who are many a remove from old Puritan stock.

On the whole we could not wish it otherwise. Cultural continuity is necessary for civilization. The fact that ways of life take root not only in a population, but almost in the soil itself is a reassurance in behalf of the enduring quality of our established ways, though kingdoms and political parties totter.

But we are not granted much time for the indulgence of our security in these days. Quite another circumstance threatens our unity as a civilization. It is our material progress, our unquestionably successful drive for greater mastery of the world of physical forces and elements, that is leading us into an impasse.

And here it may not be entirely beside the mark to take note, parenthetically, of the amazing extent to

which the consciousness of something wrong with our civilization has penetrated the contemporary mind. Existing as a vague uneasiness for a long time, it has crystallized into some of the most varied ideas, hardly compatible with each other, yet all striving to express the need of recovering the equilibrium which we lost when we began our present headlong progress. I am not here referring to the somewhat shopworn though still unsettled issues of labor vs. capital, the single tax, internationalism, etc. Rather I have in mind three movements in contemporary history which, disparate though they are, revolve so true around a common center, and loom so vast in their possibilities, that I cannot but regard them as profoundly significant for all those who take the long look forward.

I. First, there is the swing toward Orientalism. Such men as Count Keyserling—and there are many of them, though none, perhaps, so surprising in his convictions as this German aristocrat—are actually suggesting in no uncertain words that the East is right after all when in the person of some swami it smiles sardonically across the Pacific at us while we frantically indulge in our wonted pastime of chasing ourselves around the block. It is true, we have more automobiles than all the rest of the world, but the silken challenge of Tagore and Dhan Gopal Mukerji has reached us for some fleeting moments and we are almost—not quite yet—ready to pause and ask what difference it makes. Orientalism is challenging our Western way of life.

II. Secondly, there is the renaissance of medievalism. The word "renaissance" is used deliberately to emphasize the irony of time. Once the whole medieval world appeared, to borrow the simile of Professor Munro, a dark valley, a sunken and murky stretch of ground over which humanity had been passing for a thousand years, and from the peaks of dawn, the newly attained highlands of the revival of learning and humanism, the world looked back across that valley, above and beyond it, saw the forgotten peaks of classical civilization shining fair against an untroubled sky, and summoned the spirit of that older civilization to join it in a rebirth. Now we have experienced not alone the Renaissance, but several successive aftermaths, and, strangely enough, we are beginning to view the ground over which we have been stumbling onward for the last four or five hundred years as a journey in a wilderness, in which all the prominent guide boards have read, "Laissez faire," and have led nowhere for society. Like the harper in Dunsany's story, we are fain to admit at last: "My king, I no longer know the way to Carcassone." And now we begin to see that the medieval world had its points no less than ours. It had an organization, imperfect though it was, that we are frankly unable to build just now; and it had a perfectly definite and self-consistent idealism which we would give our shoes to regain. Hence the voices of those who would turn back in some sense to medieval ways, of whom a fair example is Ralph Adams Cram, the architect, who solemnly advocates a revival

of monasticism to cure the soul of the American people!

III. Thirdly, there is the coming industrial revolution in the generation, transmission, and diffusion—aye, there's the rub!—of electrical energy; "Giant Power," if you will, with its inevitable and clearly foreseen attendant social revolution.

Now, what have these three ideas in common? That, I think, is easily answered. You may take Gandhi, in India, advocating the revival of hand spinning and weaving against the invading of India by the factory and mill; you may take John Ruskin, who hated a railroad as he did the devil and his works, and who believed in the hand-made products and buildings of the Middle Ages; you may take Henry Ford himself, arch-apostle of quantity production, who nevertheless hopes to see Giant Power restore the deserted village of the decadent domestic system of industry and lure his employees away from Detroit; and through the minds of all three you may clearly discern this thread of thought running its course: the "iron man in industry," the most conspicuous creation of our civilization, is doing us to death.

But how? By running us off our feet. By going faster than we ought to go, if we care to live. The problem of marketing our material products, of keeping up with our own machines, is becoming our major problem.

This is precisely the point at which I begin to manifest an interest, as a student of history. It is the speed, the rate of material progress that is giving us our problem of undigested social masses of things and people, milling around without satisfaction.

Here is our problem: Our great speed produces rapid change in outward life. This brings rapid changes in our mores, our culture. The elasticity of a custom has its limits, and presently we see a gap—the ways of the parents have become incomprehensible to the children. This is what I mean by Discontinuity of Tradition.

Culture complexes may, indeed, resist the vicissitudes of race and language, but material progress effects changes which pulverize and disintegrate the culture complex. It is not mere change that hurts a civilization, but a rate of change so rapid that the normal carry-over from parent to child cannot be effected. And this is what is happening these days. The rate of change in outward society is being constantly accelerated. It was formerly an easy thing—at least most people accomplished the feat—to pass on to one's children an attitude toward life. In the recounting of the chronicles of the former generation to the children, certain events might seem unique, from the children's point of view, but the events would at least be set in a background of everyday life perfectly understood by all. The wonderful thing, if you stop to reflect, from a modern point of view, about the wonderful one-hoss shay was not that it ran a hundred years, but that it continued to be in good standing as an equipage in the town. Think of the parson being able to drive down the street in a

vehicle built a hundred years before, which, however old it may be, is not considered *quaint*. Nobody had to explain to any child: "That? Oh, that's a *chaise*. They used to ride in them years ago." A rather striking illustration of how much more rapidly one form succeeds another nowadays appeared recently in the reminiscences of Mrs. Haldane, of Cloan,² recently a centenarian. Says she "...my sister and I were sent (this was about 1830)....in a currie drawn by a pair of thoroughbred horses....A currie is a carriage in shape like a phaeton, but a bar rests on the backs of the horses instead of having a splinter bar." The currie went out; she explains it by referring to the phaeton, which has need of explanation nowadays, too. "No Rolls-Royce has ever worn out." Exactly!—but, quite differently from the case of the one-hoss shay, its refusal to wear out after, say ten years, makes it a possible embarrassment, because it may seem antiquated. We move so fast nowadays!

And so it comes about that the danger to social continuity is very great, perhaps greater than at any time in the world's experience. Many forces are at work to unify and make continuous the space world in which we carry on our ant-hill life,—the radio, the automobile, the airplane, etc. But man's specialty, after all, as the philosophers point out, is time-binding. He alone has a history in this sense. He alone relates one time to another and carries over a value across a time interval. Other animals have only a "natural history," which is not, strictly speaking, a history at all, but merely a succession or procession, without subjective coherence. And now man's success at time-binding is being threatened. His time world is being broken into a succession of short unrelated beats. But if he loses his sense of location in time he will suffer socially. His children will remove the ancient landmarks. No wonder we see the DeMolay movement arising to emphasize filial piety.

Man may, of course, "bind time" too rigidly, fastening some institutional mortmain upon himself. The Chinese did it and had less history thereby. But what they had they retained. Socially the Chinese have cohered.

On the other hand, as it seems to me, some social teachers come dangerously near to saying that whatever is old should be chucked out of the window.³ Dr. Osler's famous dictum about chloroform for men over forty comes to mind. But let anyone familiar with a college campus try to conceive of the utter vacuity of existence under a régime of pure youth.

II. THE TRANSLATION OF TRADITION

I shall next try to show the function of history with regard to the problem of discontinuous tradition.

A liberal education today includes some degree of acquaintance with each of the following groups of studies:

1. The pure sciences: i. e., those which are interested in form before substance, and in fact rather than its concrete application or its emergence into experience.

2. The humanities: i. e., those which are interested in human life as experienced reality.

3. The social studies: i. e., those which are interested in human life as observed phenomena.

4. The technical sciences: i. e., those which are interested in knowledge as a means to an end.

Let us see what relation history has to these groups.

1. History can never be regarded as a pure science. Its very breath of being is concrete reality. It cannot be predicated. The most recent attempt at a positive doctrine of history, under the name of "Craties" is self-evidently absurd. History, unlike the rule of three, never repeats itself.

2. History, on the other hand, has always been one of the humanistic studies, and a knowledge of Greek and Roman "Antiquities" has always been considered elegant. In the present writer's opinion, history should continue to be classed primarily with the humanities.

3. In recent years history has enlarged its field a little and finds itself numbered with the "social sciences." Its function here as a general bond, an illuminator, and a purveyor of substance for all the others is quite well established.

4. But as a technical study; that is, as a means to an end, history has never had much recognition on its own account. That history is "a good thing to know" has been granted; good for what, except to run errands for the economist, sociologist, or political scientist, and provide grist for his mill to grind, has not always been discernible.⁴ That history has lately found a function which it may claim as its own peculiar province is my thesis. This is nothing else than the Translation of Tradition, or in other words, the presentation of the past to the younger generation in such a way as to make it accepted as a part of his loyalty rather than of his mere knowledge.

This task may properly be regarded by the history teacher or scholar as a social commission. To bring about the transfer of an attitude from one generation to another is to prevent the young generation from the bitter experience and the social retardation of beginning all over again. And no one but the historian is likely to claim the task.

History is probably the least static of all studies. In its very nature it grows. Mere lapse of time brings growth to it. Nor is it mere accretion. The transpiring of historic events changes the aspect of what preceded, so that the whole of history may change, as a landscape may alter its aspect. Hence history has constantly to develop new interpretations of parts in relation to each other, and in relation to the whole field.

Of all the interpretations of one period in the light of another and for the enlightenment of a generation of students, the critical moment is always the transition from the youthful day of the fathers to the present. The most important demonstration of the translation or carrying over of tradition to be made in historical study, then, is the acquainting of the present generation, say of college students, with the

forty or fifty years preceding the last ten years. For American history just now that would mean the period from the end of Civil War reconstruction to 1914. In European history it would mean from the Franco-Prussian War to the same date. Contemporary history is quite another thing, and does not involve the problem of the interpretation of traditions.

This type of interpretative course is to be considered an effort to convey an appreciation of the past. It sets off for study a period that does not run back beyond the grasp of the instructor's memory plus that of his parents. It does not deal with the present directly. It makes a close alliance with

literature, particularly the historical novel. It uses biography generously. But above all, personal creative interpretation by the instructor and by the student must be used throughout.

* A paper read before the meeting of the New Hampshire Academy of Science, at New London, N. H.

¹ Wissler; *Man and Culture*, p. 126.

² *Living Age*, May 23, 1925.

³ See Ludwig Lewisohn, "Up Stream," p. 236 ff.

⁴ On the subject of the uses of history, see Calvin O. Davis, "Guide to Methods and Observation in History," p. 11,—a list of 36 "values" of history, beginning with "it develops the power of constructive imagination" and ending with "it furnishes an inexhaustible source of pleasure and satisfaction for leisure hours and for the consolation of old age."

English Literature an Aid to Modern History

BY SARAH THOMAS, WASHINGTON IRVING HIGH SCHOOL, TARRYTOWN, NEW YORK

Modern tendencies in secondary education have taken us a long way from the treatment of a subject as a detached unit, something conceived of as being encased in a vacuum by itself. The emphasis has shifted so far that courses are now devised to give a cross-section of a period; the student is shown the tendencies in government, customs, literature, and art as a unity, not as isolated forces or tendencies. Though such an arrangement of the curriculum offers many practical difficulties, which seem to forbid its adoption in our public school system, we know that the drift is in that direction and away from the idea that each course is complete in itself. Criticizing the old way of isolating subject-matter, Meiklejohn says: "This may be the teaching of subjects, but it does not give knowledge in any genuine or fundamental sense."

The assumption is warrantable that each one of us has a fairly definite idea of the place of education in our democracy and of its chief aims, though we may not be able to phrase our thoughts so vividly as H. G. Wells did a few years ago in that threatening statement: "The future depends upon a race between education and catastrophe." But I am sure that we all agree that education should aim to make the student aware of the society of which he is a member, and that he cannot understand the present or cope with its problems successfully unless he has comprehended the achievements of the past. Also, we are admonished to consider the necessity of preparing the youth of today to make a wise use of the leisure that is increasingly being provided for him by the shortening of hours of labor and by the further use of mechanical devices to release the human factor. Though we do not aim to make a specialist in research out of every student, we are asking ourselves very seriously if some interest can be so aroused and stimulated that through the years of mature life it will add to the zest of living.

If history can be vitalized by literature, may we not hope that this happy combination will often create a life interest in a culture that will find depth as it links the record of the scribe with the interpretation

of the poet and the novelist and the reflections of the essayist? And literature will gain as much by the closer correlation as will the study of history. I am aware that it is impracticable to try to teach the history of literature without a fairly clear idea of the general history of the period. In the reading of fiction, will not an emphasis on the historical background make more discriminating readers, readers feeding less on the lotus leaf of emotional satisfaction and excitement? If we are not ready to fuse history and English and teach the periods as a whole, rather than to retain the arbitrary divisions, perhaps we might try a system of exchanges. I wonder if the teachers of history were to step into the shoes of the English teachers for a year, and the latter, in their turn, were to rest their gaze which threatens to become short-sighted by too much peering for split infinitives and the incomplete sentence by looking down the vistas of movements and the records of man's achievements, of which writing is only a part, if there would not be a fresh breeze of interest blowing through our classrooms?

Specifically, what can literature do for history? I quote Meiklejohn again: "So far as we can bring it about, the young people of our generation shall know themselves, shall know their fellows, shall think their way into the common life of the people, and by their thoughts shall illumine it and direct it." "We pledge ourselves to the study of the universal things in life." Furthermore, educators are telling us, as teachers, that we must lead boys and girls to feel life as an adventure. In literature, the history student finds life of the different periods pictured in detail. The characters, as a rule, live in some particular time, and the fundamental details of their lives are essentially true, while their specific adventures are more or less imaginary. Many history texts slight the cost of living, the conditions of various classes, labor of women and children, capital and labor, art and music. Because of its concreteness, literature is one of the opportunity avenues of building up vivid ideas of the way real men and women opposed changes or hastened reforms, and under

what specific conditions they lived out their span of life. As the student comprehends that individuals of like virtues and weaknesses of those he personally knows figured in the events recorded, he will come to a sympathetic understanding of the nature common to man in spite of differences of language, of customs, and forms of government. How much youth depends upon his teachers for incentive and guidance in this distracting age, when there are so many chances to fritter away time and energies, is expressed in a few lines called "Potentiality":

"I am potentiality,
I am positive and I am negative.
I am the youth who has wasted his opportunity,
I am weariness, hopelessness, failure.
I am the youth who has caught the chance,
I am happiness, hopefulness, success."

Theorizing on the subject is stimulating to the imagination. But when one comes to the specific treatment of the topic certain difficulties appear. In making references I shall not always select titles that would satisfy Matthew Arnold's dictum: "Literature is the best that has been thought and said in the world," for sometimes the value of the picture may be great enough to condone the author for some blemishes as an artist. Some of the titles that I suggest are better suited for reading by the teacher than by the immature pupil.

But if the background of history and general culture of the teacher are enriched, the teaching process will show the benefit. When one tries to make a list of books the field seems very extensive and the material of varying quality. An exhaustive enumeration would be wearisome to the reader and would tax my resources to an embarrassing degree. When I came to assemble my material I found some difficulty in classifying the topics, for one topic seems at times to overlap another division. In some instances I have taken the liberty of enlarging the scope of the term "literature" to include translations from other tongues.

Modern history shows three trends or epochs, as I understand; namely, the French Revolution, the Industrial Revolution, and the Democratic Movement in Government.

The literature on the French Revolution is prolific, and its reflection in English poetry of the nineteenth century is marked. Wordsworth, Byron, and Shelley were influenced by the struggle, and their poetry, both by general characteristics and in detail, shows the effect. Wordsworth wrote numerous sonnets, which may be found in his complete works under the heading "Independence and Liberty." In sonnet 19 of this group he laments the bondage worst to bear of:

"His, who walks about in the open air,
One of a nation who henceforth must wear
Their fetters in their souls;
And know that noble feelings, manly powers,
Instead of gathering strength, must droop and pine."

In passing, I might allude to his sonnets, *Memoirs of a Tour on the Continent*, 1820, and of a Tour in Italy, 1837. These poems breathe of liberty or bewail the loss of it. In his apostrophe to Italy he urges:

"What thou dost inherit
Of the world's hopes, dare to fulfil; awake,
Mother of Heroes, from thy death-like sleep!"

In the last two cantos of "Childe Harold," Byron wrote of Napoleon and of his power and the abject condition of men gathered in cities. Also in Shelley the yearning for freedom is strong. His preface to the long poem, "The Revolt of Islam," is witness to how deeply he felt on the struggle of mankind for better conditions, and his comments on the French Revolution keenly analyze the causes and the effects of the violence of the crisis. His message is one of hopefulness:

"Victory, victory to the prostrate nations!
Bear witness, Night, and ye mute Constellations
Who gaze on us from your crystalline ears!
Thoughts have gone forth whose powers can sleep
no more!

Victory! Victory! Earth's remotest shores,
Regions which groan beneath the Antarctic stars,
The green lands cradled in the roar
Of western waves, and wildernesses
Peopled and vast which skirt the oceans
Where Morning dyes her golden tresses,
Shall soon partake our high emotions:
Kings shall turn pale! Almighty Fear,
The Fiend-God, when our charmed name he hear,
Shall fade like shadow from his thousand fanes,
While Truth, with Joy enthroned, o'er his lost
empire reigns!"

In England the writers of the nineteenth century were voicing the industrial unrest. Ruskin preached work as gospel. He appealed to the wealthy and to the leisure class to assist the workers. Someone has phrased his ideal thus: "Into a democratic mass he would introduce an aristocratic leaven." In his book, "Past and Present," he declared the dignity of work and worth of manual labor, and urged such reforms as profit-sharing and government regulation. Literature claims these dissertations because of the power of his imagination and the excellent style of the phrasing. Shelley made an appeal to the people themselves to free themselves. In his stirring poem, "The Mask of Anarchy," which was written as a protest against the Manchester Massacre of 1819, he summons the people to assert their power:

"Let a vast assembly be,
And with great solemnity
Declare with measured words that ye
Are, as God has made ye, free;
Rise like lions after slumber,
In unvanquishable number—
Shake your chains to earth like dew,
Which in sleep has fallen on you,
Ye are many, they are few."

Wordsworth in "Excursion" (part 8) character-

izes the Inventive Age as having "an appetite as keen as that of war, which rests not night nor day." He speaks of the birthright of the child to its short holiday as lost:

"Economists will tell you that the State
Thrives by the forfeiture-unfeeling thought,
As false as monstrous."

He describes the boy, "creeping his gait and cowering, his lip pale," and "scarcely could you fancy that a gleam could break from those languid eyes."

"Liberty of mind is gone forever, and this organic frame,
So joyful in its motions is become dull; to the joys
of its own motions dead."

Again, "Who shall enumerate the crazy huts and tottering hovels?"

Another voice in behalf of the children, the most pitiable victims of the factory system, is Mrs. Elizabeth Browning's. Stronger, more effective than sermons is the poem, "The Cry of the Children":

"Do you hear the children weeping, O, my brothers,
'Ere the sorrow comes with years?

They are weary 'ere they run;
They have never seen the sunshine, nor the glory
Which is brighter than the sun:
They know the grief of man without his wisdom,
They sink in man's despair without his calm."

Thomas Hood's poem, "The Song of the Shirt," expresses the suffering of women who, even when nature cried for release from the torture of long hours, worked "till the heart was sick and the brain benumbed."

The novelists of the nineteenth century gave expression to the effects of the new industrialism. Dickens in "Christmas Carol" showed the new humanness that was to come into business relations. "Hard Times" told of the pathetic life of the weavers. Disraeli's "Sybil" revealed the miseries of factory life. Mrs. Gaskell in "Mary Barton," published in 1840, gave a picture of the factory hand. The dying words of a worn-out weaver are: "Oh, Lord, I thank thee that the hard struggle of living is over." In 1860, Charles Reade's novel, "Put Yourself in His Place," was published. The tyranny of the trades union was so vividly depicted that there was a protest against the publication of the book, but investigation showed that Reade had not exaggerated the conditions. Nearer to our own times, Galsworthy's "Strife" repeats the story of the antagonism between the master and his men. Hardy's "The Return of the Native" and "Jude the Obscure" reveal the corroding effect of poverty.

Dr. Thorndike in his "Literature in a Changing Age" states: "This impulse of pity, this desire to remedy, throb through the literature of the period. The world of employer and employee, of factory production, of the new rich and the new poor, has offered its interplay of change affecting men's motives and ambitions, remaking the occupations and interest of our daily life. There can be no doubt that literature

is committed to this service of summoning us to an improvement of society."

Modern English literature offers a wide field. Bernard Shaw in "Man of Destiny" pictures Napoleon; in his "Man and Superman," the socialist. These books are probably best for the teacher. While Shaw preaches duty to oneself, Wells pictures the future. "Mr. Britling Sees It Through" seems to me is one of the best of modern books to show the nature common to us all and how it is modified by our ideals, as well as to show how one man thought through the confusion of the World War. His recent book, "Meanwhile," has been called by the reviewers a tract on the subject of the British coal strike. But the story is interesting and the appeal for sportsmanship in business is vividly phrased. At least, we can be in sympathy with the author's wish to make the world a better place in which to live.

English imperialism has had its most productive interpreter in Rudyard Kipling. Both in his prose and his poetry he voices the mission of the British, using so often the phrase, "the white man's burden." His versatility in revealing the shaping influences of the modern world is concisely summed up in a quotation from the "Winged Horse" by Auslander and Hill. "Rudyard Kipling crossed the Indian Ocean and the Mediterranean Sea and passed through busy London. He saw the smokestacks of factories, he saw old churches and palaces. He saw the ships slipping out to sea with sails blowing full or funnels streaming smoke, and the red-coated British soldiers marching through the drizzling streets to embark for Egypt or Hong Kong or his own Calcutta. He thrilled that his own blood was the blood of these islands. He saw ugly things in the life about him, but he saw power and the glory, too."

John Masefield is another poet who interprets modern phases of English thought. In his dedication to his "Sea Ballads," he announces his purpose to sing to—

"The men of the tattered battalion which fights till it dies,
The men with the broken heads and the blood running into their eyes;
Of the maimed, of the halt, and the blind in the rain and cold."

There are many selections of an historical nature which I have omitted. You will think of Tennyson's "Lucknow," and Byron's "Siege of Corinth," and the novels of George Eliot with their English settings and characters against the religious and industrial background of the past century.

Irish feelings have for their spokesmen today such gifted writers as Lady Gregory and Yeats. The beloved James Barrie and R. L. S. make even the dourness of Scotland attractive. The French peasant in Canada is pictured in "Marie Chapdelaine." This story, showing the struggle with the soil, has, in spite of its stern setting, an appealing beauty.

"The Grandeur That Was Rome" has been sung by more than Byron, and two English poets of the

nineteenth century that felt the beauty of the land were Browning and Rosetti. Rather recently Belloc in his informal essay, "The Path of Rome," has done something that compares favorably in ease of style and responsiveness to the country with Stevenson's "Travels With a Donkey." Belloc sets out from Toul by the Nancy gate along the Moselle. Just two or three sentences will give you an idea of his style.

"At St. Pierre the peasants sat outside their houses in the twilight accepting the cool air; everyone spoke to me as I marched by. As I left the last house of the village, I was not secure from loneliness, and when the road began to climb up the hill, into the wild and the trees, I was wondering how the night would pass.

"With every step upward a greater mystery surrounded me, and a few stars were out, and the brown night mist was creeping along the water below. The kingdoms that have no walls and are built up of shadows began to oppress me as the night hardened." Later he came out upon a plateau. "The woods before me and behind me made a square frame of silence, and I was enclosed here in the clearing, thinking of all things."

Due to painstaking work of the able translators, the literature of Scandinavia is at our service to help us achieve that objective I have already quoted in the words of Meiklejohn: "We pledge ourselves to the study of the universal things in life." The theatre has helped further this knowledge of the life common to man. Ibsen's "An Enemy of the People" is one example. Ibsen expressed the shams of society. Hansum's "Growth of the Soil" and "Hunger" convey a sense of the solidarity of man's experiences in spite of varying customs. Selma Lagerlof in "Marabacka" gives most engaging views of family life of the Swedish.

Though Russia is so inaccessible to most of us for travel, literature brings it close. Turgenieff's "Diary of a Sportsman" shows peasant life before emancipation. It was a powerful influence in freeing the serfs. Tolstoy's "War and Peace" pictures the Napoleonic wars and "Anna Karenina" shows life in the country and in the city. Maxim Gorky's "Decadence" is a record of the thirty years preceding the Russian Revolution, and tells the story of the rise of a peasant family to success, only to sink back. Hugh Walpole's "The Dark Forest" and "The Secret City," Garrison's "Marooned in Moscow," and the writings of Stephen Graham give modern Russian life.

If we go as far as Japan with Lafcadio Hearn in "Out of the East" and "In Ghostly Japan," he will enchant us with his love of the land. Maughan "On a Chinese Screen" and "East of Suez" will take us to Japan's neighbor, as will Eunice Tietjens in "Profiles From China," and Kemp in "Chinese Mettle Book" will reveal the wealth and beauty of interior China; also the vitality of the nation and the new China. For contrast we may like O'Neill's "Marco Millions."

Melville will take us to the South Seas by the

frigate "Moby Dick." This book pictures the whaling industry and the early missionary work. The numerous records left by missionaries may not, in all cases, rank high as literature, but they give first-hand knowledge and often record keen observations.

There is a borderland of writing that may be claimed both by the student of history and of English. I refer to such books as: Maurois' "Disraeli: A Picture of the Victorian Age"; Mark Sullivan, "Our Times"; "Letters of Gertrude Bell," picturing Mesopotamia and Arab's defeated hopes of national development; Morley's "Life of Strachey"; and Walter Lippman's "Men of Destiny." These men are the chief political figures of today. Mr. Lippman discusses the problem of the country and the city, industrial organization, newspapers, and emphasizes the need for an aristocracy of mind and character.

I have not attempted to do justice to the aid that literature can be to American history, as the field is so large and our knowledge and means of widening that knowledge are ample. We recognize certain books as being especially valuable. Owen Wister and Bret Harte tell us of the West. Hamlin Garland in "Main Traveled Roads" and "The Son of the Middle Border" presents the Middle West. Also Herbert Quick in "Vandermark's Folly" and Willa Cather in "My Antonio" have enriched the literature of this section. Moody's "The Great Divide" shows the conflict in characters brought from different environments, especially the New England type against the western. New England has been interpreted by Alice Brown, Sara Jewett, Mary F. Wilkins, and the poet, Robert Frost. The best poets of democracy are Walter Whitman and Vachel Lindsay. A book that gives the Southern point of view at the time of the Civil War is Boyd's "Marching On." Benet's "Spanish Bayonet" revives old Spain in Florida. "Giants in the Earth" by Rolvaag is a story of the fisher-folk of Norway, struggling with nature on the Western prairies. The author gives description of a blizzard, of pest of locusts, and writes an inspiring account of their moral courage in their distresses. Steiner in his books like "The Emigrant Tide" arouses interest and helps us to understand the aliens in our land. A volume for the teacher is the "Education of Henry Adams." Perhaps we are too close to our own time to know if he summed up the great lack in our civilization in his complaint that he could find not a single purpose in our great American activity. At any rate, the perusal is stimulating.

If we can find the time to use them, there are many sources available from which we can draw to enlarge our list of reading that will help us to use literature to interpret history. The criticisms published in various papers and magazines are helpful.

Among books of reference are Drinkwater's "Outlines of Literature," especially volumes 2 and 3; "The Winged Horse," by Auslander and Hill; "Critical Woodcuts," by S. P. Sherman; and Van Doren's "American and English Literature Since 1890." In addition, there are books of scholarly research such as Thorndike's "Literature in a Changing Age."

Pupil Participation in History Classes

BY A. W. JOHNSON, PRINCIPAL OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL, MINOT, N. D.

How can the recitation in history become a pupil-activity period? The tendency to include history in the group of social studies makes this a doubly pertinent query. If the social studies are to train for living in "real-life situations" the pupil must be more than a passive hearer and repeater of textbook phrases. If to learn is "to acquire new ways of behaving"¹ then it is questionable whether, under "the teacher activity" method of recitation, learning has not been a pretty one-sided affair to the detriment of the real learner. We have been backward in seeing the learning process in the light of psychology. Thorndike's three Laws of Learning—Law of Mind's Set, Law of Exercise, and Law of Effect—have been taught to teachers in training, but little progress has been made to reorganize the methods of teaching citizenship courses in the light of these laws. Instead of making history a study of life-situations we have made it a study in a morgue, "viewing the remains."

It is in an effort to get away from this show-case method of teaching history that Minot Junior High School has developed and adopted a definite procedure for bringing life experiences into the classroom according to the Laws of Learning. It is the aim of this article to bring to teachers an explanation of procedures that will prove helpful in changing the pupils from inert, uninterested listeners to active, lively experience-ers.

No expensive, elaborate laboratory equipment is needed in order to make history concrete. The change affects fundamentally the point of view of teachers and supervisors and gives rise to no new administrative problems. Much of the material needed for the work outlined here can be supplied by the pupils themselves or is supplied by the school for general purposes. A liberal supply of colored construction paper should be available; as well as paste; colored inks such as white, green, and red; scissors; a roll of tough, white or light-brown wrapping paper; colored crayons; paper fasteners; bulletin board; a variety of history books adapted to the age of the children; and a storage place for completed material, and donated or unclaimed costumes.

The teacher needs to have a large number of suggestions for activities with which to guide and stimulate the imagination and thinking of the pupils. Some history books contain a few such suggestions which can be adapted and interpreted to fit local needs, for example, "Go with Daniel Boone on a trip into the New West. Write a letter home telling of your experiences." These suggestions may be copied on the blackboards and left there while the unit is being studied. This is often inconvenient, however, because the blackboard space is not available. A better plan is that of having the sug-

gestions multigraphed (a hektograph will serve the purpose) and a copy placed in the hands of each pupil. This will save much of the teacher's time. These suggestions will beget suggestions. Once the pupils use these teacher-made suggestions new, original ideas will soon come to the front to supplement any prepared list. This encourages pupil initiative.

The activities may be individual or they may be participated in by the group. No distinct line can be drawn separating the two, however. A pupil may undertake an activity individually such as "Imagine yourself to be Patrick Henry before the Virginia House of Burgesses. Work out a fiery speech, fitting the times, in which you present the famous Virginia Resolutions. Do not neglect to bring in his 'Caesar had his Brutus, Cromwell his, etc.'" Or the activity may be in the form of a cartoon, a poster, an historic letter, pages from a diary, graphs, newspaper articles, and an endless number of situations which help to make the happenings of history living real-life. There is no problem in technique to deter a teacher from using this form of activity in place of the "write-a-composition" suggestions and the daily "question-and-answer" method.

Let us assume that the class has just completed the study of the American Revolution and in summarizing the work have agreed that one thing they should undertake to do is to edit a "Revolutionary Heroes' Book." This will call for group discussion and division of labor; committees will have to be chosen; departments of the book planned; the heroes selected by majority approval; biographies, anecdotes, poems, human-interest incidents gathered and assembled. This all calls for organization and teamwork; weighing and evaluating opinions; and freedom to use one's own head. The committee of the National Society for the Study of Education very pointedly says: "It is the task of the teacher and the curriculum-maker, therefore, to select and organize materials which will give the learner that development most helpful in meeting and controlling life situations. The method by which the learner works out these experiences, enterprises, exercises should be such as calls for maximal self-direction, assumption of responsibility, of exercise of choice in terms of life values."²

Children, like adults, like to know whether they are successful. To this end, each pupil keeps in his history notebook what has come to be called a "Progress Record." The teacher foresees and plans for a variety of activities that may be engaged in for a six weeks' period. Each pupil then prepares for himself the form for a record sheet like the following:

RECORD OF MY PROGRESS THIS SIX WEEKS' PERIOD	
Pages Covered in Reading.....	
Re-Living the Past Stunts.....	
Project Posters and Maps.....	
Exhibition of Cartoons.....	
Exhibition of Relics.....	
Written Book Reports.....	
Oral Topic Reports.....	
Original Poems.....	
Impersonating Historical Characters.....	
Examinations and Tests.....	
Junior Citizenship.....	
Unclassified	
Average Grade.....	

The pupil then chooses to interpret the history he has studied by means of the suggested activities which appeal to him the most. He may find an event that adapts itself to a cartoon-idea. For example, one pupil represented the compromise between the large and the small states in the constitutional convention in a cartoon portraying Virginia and Rhode Island as engaged in a dialogue.

Another pupil saw the same thing in the form of a "stunt" or playlet as follows:

SPLITTING THE DIFFERENCE

Characters—Small State, Large State, Compromise.

LARGE STATE: Say, Small State, have you heard what's going on at the Convention in Philadelphia?

SMALL STATE: No-o-o (pretending innocence), not much. Why?

LARGE STATE: Now, see here, Small State, why do you want to be so piggish about this representation? Can't you see that we should have more votes in Congress than you because we have more people?

SMALL STATE: Say, if we were to give you voting power according to your population you'd out-vote us every time. You know that, too.

LARGE STATE: Oh, no, you wouldn't.

SMALL STATE: You don't understand and you don't want to understand.

LARGE STATE: Yes, I do.

SMALL STATE: No, you don't; you dog-in-the-manger!

LARGE STATE: Now, don't get smarty and start calling names.

CCompromise (entering): Say, say, what's all this noise about, anyway?

SMALL STATE: Oh, I'm so glad you came, because surely you must feel the way I do. Large State is so bossy. He is trying to make me give in just because he is big and I am small. Bully! That's—

LARGE STATE (interrupting): Shut up, I won't take anything from—

CCompromise: I'm not so sure that I understand and I am sure that you don't understand each other—

SMALL STATE: Well, Large State thinks that in order that our government can work at all each State must have delegates to Congress fixed according to the number of people in the State. That means, of course, that Large State will have his own way all the time. No use for me to elect and send delegates even. The only fair way is for each State to have the same number of representatives.

LARGE STATE: Experience under the Confederation has taught us that equal representation will never—

CCompromise: This is serious all right. I have an idea. We must try to form a strong government, isn't that true?

BOTH (in unison): Yes! Yes! By all means!

CCompromise: Why not throw the old plan in the junk-heap and try something different? Instead of the one house for Congress, suppose we have two. In the one house Small State might have his way, with each State having the same number of members, while in the other Large State might have his way, with the members chosen by the people in proportion to the number living in the State.

SMALL STATE: That's an idea! It's not just the way I'd like it, but I'm willing to give in a little for the sake of a strong government.

LARGE STATE: That's just the way I feel—we'll split the difference—both get part of our way, but neither get all, and save the day. Thanks to you, Compromise!

Written by ETHEL HOPKINS, Seventh Grade.

When a pupil has presented his material before the class the teacher gives him a grade on his "Progress Record" in the column provided for that particular activity. A pupil wants as many marks and as good marks as possible. He works before school, after school, and at home searching, collecting, and preparing material for class presentation. Many parents have commented on the interest the children bring home in gathering material for credit points in history.

The pupils were asked to write candidly their attitude toward this method of history teaching as compared with the "question-and-answer" method. The following statements are typical responses:

'I like the plan because all posters, cartoons, playlets, and readings are brought up before the class and this makes history much clearer to me. Then, too, it fixes them in my mind so that I do not forget them so quickly."

"I think the lazy people show up more in their work in this plan and you can pretty near tell which are the lazy ones. I like it because I find it easier for me than just reading and reciting, because I usually forget what I read. Now, by writing out 'stunts' and cartoons I learn more."

"I like this plan because we have to use our judgment to find articles that refer to what we are studying and so we have to use our wits more than when you tell us what pages to read. It also gives those a chance to show up who are good at plays or poems. It takes us more into detail about the events in the chapter we are studying."

More than four hundred pupils were asked that same question and only three dissented. Their objection was that they did not like to get up before the class and talk—hardly a valid objection.

After having used the method and watched other teachers use it with efficiency, there is no doubt in the writer's mind but that it puts a challenge directly to the individual pupil; it creates a desire to get things done. The mechanics of it offer a variety of activity that constantly whets the pupils' curiosity and stimulates his ingenuity. It provides an effective means for bringing in motivation for both spoken and written English. A type of home work is made possible that makes profitable and pleasurable use of leisure time. The pupil resees, rehearses, rethinks, and relives the events and problems of the past.

¹ "Foundations of Curriculum-Making," Part II, p. 121, 26th Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education.

² "Foundations of Curriculum-Making," Part II, p. 19, 26th Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education.

Utilizing Pupils' Own Source Materials

BY JENNIE L. HENDRICKS, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, NEW BRITAIN, CONN.

"Make the past real" is an essential slogan for the effective history teacher. The elementary school child has had so few experiences on which to build, that, for an interpretation of the past, he must have much concrete illustration.

"This unreal world into which you have thrust him must be recreated and made real through objectifying it, even to the point of resolving it into things which he can see, touch, and handle, if need be. You must place him in contact with the things which his eye can appreciate or with situations where his emotion may find an outlet."¹

The "new history" is stressing the importance of introducing the pupil to present-day problems. In order to understand the present, he must be able to interpret the past, for all history is the story of development. Present-day problems did not spring up like the proverbial mushroom, but came about as the result of remote beginnings. A vivid understanding of those beginnings will help much in securing an intelligent interpretation of the problems of today.

Nearly every incident in history can be visualized and reproduced in concrete form. But to many teachers comes the perplexing problem, "Where can I get the material for illustrative purposes?" Schools are furnishing much more along this line today than formerly. We have excellent educational films, models of various kinds can be purchased, many firms can supply fairly accurate pictures for illustration. These, however, are often prohibitive because of cost.

But were these always available, the pupils' homes would still remain the finest storehouse from which we may collect certain types of material. We have not begun to utilize this source of supplies to the extent which is possible. Many teachers have had the experience of being amazed at the fund of material which has been brought together, once they have provided the children with the proper incentive for collecting.

Then, too, is not material which the child himself has brought in from an outside source more interesting, more vital to him (and to his schoolmates) than that which some commercial firm is producing? Is there not great value in having the child feel that he is making a contribution to the work of the school, that he is a real participant, rather than always a mere receiver of information? A copy-book which his own grandmother used, candlesticks which have been in his family for generations, the costume which his mother used in the old country are much more likely to give the real atmosphere of the past than any picture or model, no matter how perfectly reproduced.

Following are some illustrations of how pupils in various grades of the elementary school have collected and made use of their own source materials.

A fifth grade was studying life in the colonial

period. When pictures of the interior of colonial homes were being shown, one child remarked that he had at home a warming-pan like the one in the picture. This he offered to bring to school to show the other children. Another child then offered to bring a candle-mould like the one in the picture she had seen. This stimulated the other children to suggest other things which could be collected.

Then the problem arose, "What shall we do with these materials when they are brought in?" This question was freely discussed and the children finally decided to have a colonial exhibit to which they would invite their parents. Here was a situation which certainly produced "purposeful activity."

The next morning the things began to arrive and before the end of the week our classroom was not large enough to hold all the materials. Some tables had to be placed in the hall just outside. A spinning-wheel, carder, foot-warmer, warming-pan, colonial china and silverware of various patterns, pewter dishes, copy-books, hand-wrought hinges and door knobs, a pocket sun-dial, hand-woven sheets and towels, candle-moulds, candlesticks and snuffers, hand-made quilts done in colonial patterns, a colonial lantern, whale-oil lamp, and many samplers were among the materials collected.

Each child was interested to look up material on the thing he had brought and report to the class concerning it. On parents' day each pupil was ready to explain his own contribution, or that of some other child, if necessary.

The rest of the program which grew out of this was the dancing of the minuet in costume and the dramatization of a dame's school. A replica of an old horn book, a copy of the New England primer, and an arithmetic copy-book which had been handed down for generations were made use of in the colonial school. The fact that some of these had actually been used by their forefathers in the type of school we were portraying helped to produce the desired atmosphere.

But this was not simply a study of the relics of this period, nor only an attempt to give a clear visualization of that time.

"There are other purposes that may and ought to be served. The sense of reality is important, but reality itself must, after all, be interpreted. It must, to be really useful, leave behind, not only images, but ideas. Models and pictures are aids to visualization; they may also be aids to interpretation; they stimulate imagery; they may also stimulate thought. Observation, analysis, comparison, classification of data, and generalizations should and may go hand in hand."²

That thought was stimulated by this collection is evidenced by the following problems, which were suggested by the children and teacher:

How and where did the colonists get these things?

What things did they make and which import, and why?

What raw materials did they use?

Where did they get them?

In what way was manufacture in those days different from today?

Through what stages of development has lighting passed from those days to this?

Why was life in those days so different from today?

What are the advantages and disadvantages of each?

How did the life of the colonists contribute to the feeling of independence?

Much of the material we accumulated during this unit of work was utilized during the year when working out such topics as the development of manufacture, the history of lighting, the study of occupations.

Another illustration of how source materials contributed by the children themselves may be made use of is taken from a sixth-grade room. Here the children were beginning the study of our beginnings in Europe. There were many children in this room of foreign parentage. On the board was placed, by the child himself, the name of the country from which his parents or grandparents had come. The country in each case was then located on the map. As an assignment each pupil was to find out from his parents something about the customs of the country from which they had come, and, if possible, to bring in some illustration.

Different parts of the room were set off for each country and the materials brought from home assembled in their proper places. Costumes from many countries were brought in and worn as the children talked of the country. Foreign books, cooking utensils of various kinds, and souvenirs from far and near were collected. Much hand-made material showed us that in the rural sections of Europe we can still see illustrated the handicraft stage. This served very well, later on, as illustrative material in our study of the development of manufacture.

But all contributions from the home are not necessarily tangible illustrations. Much valuable information can be passed on to the whole class if the children are encouraged to bring from their parents the stories of their experiences. This class learned much about modes of travel, occupations, government, customs, and folklore of the different countries.

Interesting problems raised by the children were:

How did your parents get here?

What were some of the difficulties on the way?

Why did they leave their homes in Europe?

The children took each problem home and came back eager to enlighten us. These led to discussions of such topics as immigration and naturalization.

There were two valuable outcomes of this unit of work: First, the children found that we had inherited much from our ancestors in Europe and that some of our problems of today have their beginnings there. Second, those children of American parentage appeared to have developed a much more wholesome and

broad-minded attitude toward the foreigner than they had had before.

My last illustration will be taken again from a sixth-grade room.³

The approach to this came through the work in drawing. As they were learning the art of book-binding, the pupils were interested to discover how people have made and kept records from ancient times to the present. The history teacher was enlisted into the service, for departmental work is carried on in this building.

In going back to the mnemonic stage of the notched stick, the knotted cord, and the wampum, pictures had to be resorted to. These the children searched for and found in books both at home and in school. One child found Herodotus' account of Darius' use of the knotted cord and read to the class: "Darius tied sixty knots in a thong, saying, 'Men of Ionia, do keep this thong and do as I shall say: as soon as ye shall have seen me go forward against the Scythians, from that time begin and untie a knot on each day; and if within this time I am not here, and ye find that the days marked by the knots have passed by, then sail away to your own land.' "

Pictures were also brought in by the children to illustrate other stages in the development, such as pictures of totem poles, Indian reliques, Indian grave posts, the Rosetta Stone, cuneiform tablets, etc.

When the point was reached for the study of the development of the book, the children brought in some very interesting illustrations. A Jewish boy got from the synagogue a scroll on which was written a prayer. Another Jewish child persuaded his parents to loan (for one day only) the prayer wheel which they still use on holidays.

As the study developed pieces of parchment, a horn glass to show how this transparent material was used on the old horn books, samplers recording dates of birth, and so on, and old leather-back books were contributed.

The art periods were given over to handwork in reproducing some of the things which they studied in their history periods. Block printing illustrated well the method of printing before the invention of movable type. The making of a medieval book, with its leather cover, the script, illuminated pages, and the actual sewing together of the pages gave the children an idea of the prodigious amount of time and effort needed to produce a manuscript in the early days.

All this, with a final visit to a modern newspaper plant, made clear the whole story of development.

The teacher who utilizes children's source materials soon finds that teaching takes on a new light, the dullest pupil begins to show an interest, thought is stimulated, and a spirit of co-operation, before unknown, prevails.

¹ Knowlton, "History and Other Social Studies in Junior High School," page 61.

² Johnson, "The Teaching of History," page 231.

³ Carried out by Priscilla Allworth, North West School, Hartford, Conn.

A Pageant Produced by Small Players

BY VIRGINIA E. STONE, SUPERVISOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOL, SCARBOROUGH, N. Y.

"I'm just ready to drop. Thank goodness that is over. I'll never write another pageant for a lot of children to show off to their fond parents."

"Why not let the children write their own pageant?" I asked.

"Yes, and disgrace us all."

"Well, at least it would be theirs; and certainly they haven't gotten much out of this. They have already forgotten it, even if it had been worth remembering (my own temper was on edge). It is just an annual show. Even the costumes are made by the teachers and parents. Not much education in it."

Our annual pageant had completed the school year. It had required the combined efforts of everyone connected with the school, from the school carpenter to the principal, to cajole, threaten and demand that parts be learned, costumes prepared, and the pageant "gotten over with." The teacher who had composed the pageant had lost her spunk and was in a continuous state of bad temper. We all were "upset."

It was early in the fall before I felt it wise to broach the subject of the pageant again. Then I suggested that it was possible to plan and carry out a far different pageant from the ones we had all dreaded.

A pageant could be an outgrowth of school subject-matter, in this way making the subject-matter studied a real part of child life. It was possible for children to plan a pageant themselves, writing the few spoken parts and planning with the teachers for the dances, songs, and pantomime. All of this could be done as a part of the regular school work, instead of being learned for the occasion. With a central theme to unify it, each grade might work out its own part and have it ready to fit into the connected whole when the time came for the pageant to be produced.

"Well, it can't be any worse than it was last year, so let's try it," one teacher ungraciously responded.

The *real* response was shown by the entire group getting to work enthusiastically. We began to search for suitable subject-matter and found in our conception of history as a viewing of the past in terms of the present a unifying theme about which to group the activities of the grades. "Whence came I and whither do I go" was a question worthy of an answer, which we attempted to find in the past, the present, and the future. For the present, we found material in the course of study. The home and the community were studied in the primary grades; the state and the nation in the higher grades. The past was shown in the history study of grades three to seven in the background of American history, early America, the problems of the present and the call to the future.

Children began to accept responsibility, "Our grade speaks for Lord Baltimore."

"Don't you think George Washington should come in?"

"How about showing the development of light?"

"We'd like to show the inventions of the present day."

"Have you seen the dyeing we are doing in the sixth grade?"

Scarcely a week passed without groups of children discussing their plans with me. "What we are now, how this came about, and toward what are we looking?" seemed to be interesting questions.

All during the year the pageant was talked of indefinitely. Just after Easter I met the teachers individually and discussed the way the plan had grown in each grade. We began to make definite plans for the final production. To this end, the following questions were asked in each grade:

1. What is our place in the pageant?
2. What subject-matter studied in history can we use?
3. How can our grade show the subject-matter? What characters, inventions and subject-matter shall we present?
4. What shall we say? How can we show in other ways than by speech?
5. How can we plan our costumes? What can be made by the children? In the making of what costumes is help needed?
6. What particular children should be selected for the important parts?

As each grade had to limit its part of the performance to ten minutes, very careful planning was necessary in order to be assured that the essential subject-matter was presented. The parts to be spoken were written in the regular English period and selections were made from the best compositions. Often several compositions were put together to form the needed spoken part. In the choice of main characters, the seventh grade provided the greatest number since they were larger children, more mature, and their voices had greater carrying power. Then, too, this was their last chance to have a part in the school pageant. The central figure, Columbia, was selected by a committee of three adults after the seventh grade children had narrowed the choice to three girls. According to the school custom, the choice of the main character implies a child with fine spirit and good scholarship as well as a good stage presence, a "carrying" voice, and the desire to represent the school. Such a choice is considered one of the highest honors which the school can confer. This year it fell upon a girl who had been defeated in November when she was a candidate for the president of the

school council. Usually a seventh grade boy is chosen for herald, but this year there seemed to be no one in the grade especially suited to the part and so the children chose a third grade boy with very fair hair and a bell-like voice.

The class period for industrial arts was often entirely filled with preparation for the pageant. One sixth grade period gives a characteristic scene. In one corner of the room a group of children were dyeing cheesecloth; four boys stood at a nearby table cutting up tin pails into small discs to make the armor of the middle ages; a high white cardboard of funnel shape proved to be the head-dress of Queen Anne of Brittany; a black robe was being hemmed up to represent the costume of a monk; borders for Roman togas were being designed; one child was making the design for her representation of the modern book; another traced the outline of her costume from an old volume; the dullest child in the room tore up pieces of rope to make wigs.

An outline of the order of appearance of each feature in the grades was made and given to the teachers to prevent any misunderstanding as to the time of appearance. Songs to be sung by the entire school were practiced in the regular chapel exercises of the school. Each grade did as it chose about practicing on the pageant ground and our first school rehearsal was not called until three days before the giving of the pageant.

The programs were printed on our hand press by the sixth grade as they appear here:

**A Pageant by
THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL
MARYLAND STATE NORMAL, TOWSON
THE GIFT OF THE AGES**

Prelude Processional.

The Past.

Columbia appears, followed by characters representing past and present.

Columbia speaks of the blessing of the present and the gift of the ages.

The Present.

The Home—Grade 1.

The Home and the Community—Grades 1, 2, 4, 5, 7.

The State—Grade 5.

The Nation—Grades 7.

Fire—Grade 7.

Tools—Grade 2.

The Gift of the Middle Ages—Grade 6.

The Development of Trade.

Greece.

The Development of the Book.

The age of Discovery—Grade 4.

The Indians—Grade 4.

Colonization—Grade 5.

The Age of Progress—Grade 5.

The Development of Government—Grade 7.

The Plea to the Future.

America.

Columbia speaks of the promise of the future.

Prayer Song.

Recessional.

Pageant written and staged by the children of the elementary school.

Music under direction of Miss McEchern, State Normal. Dances under direction of Miss Cook, State Normal.

Programs printed by the Sixth Grade.

About six o'clock on the afternoon of the pageant a hush fell on the awaiting crowd as the children began to come slowly over the brow of the hill and passed in review before the audience. Columbia took her place on a vine-covered throne in the gentle slope of the hill where a drooping willow tree made a natural background. The children formed a square near the music—a piano and two wind instruments. After the singing of "Old Glory" Columbia spoke to her children of her love and care for them. Two small children ran to her throne and questioned her.

"Are we your children?"

"And how do you take care of us?"

COLUMBIA: "O children of America, I, your Mother Columbia, protect you and love you as every fond mother loves her children. I give you democracy, a government for the people, by the people, and of the people. I give you liberty and freedom in speech and religion. I protect you on land and sea. These precious things, O children, I am able to give you through the gift of the ages, the achievements of the present and the glorious hope of the future. Through Home, the Community, the State, and the Nation I care for little children."

The home was shown by the older grades singing, "Home, Sweet Home," as twelve first-grade children came to the center of the stage, carrying their dolls. "Sleep, Baby, Sleep," gave the rhythm for the rocking of their babies to sleep. The home reaches out to the community for food, shelter, and clothing, service, and protection as shown by the lower grades in:

1. Milk Song, "Drink Milk, Children," to the air of "Good Night, Ladies."
2. Dance of Fruits and Vegetables.
3. Shelter Song, "This Is How We Build Our House."
4. Clothing shown by weaving dance, cotton song, and silk-worm made by the children.
5. Heat, The Miner's Song.
6. Light, A procession showing the development of light.
7. Water, A child tells of the Lock Raven Dam.
8. Fireman Song.

The State was ushered in to "Maryland, My Maryland," sung by the school. After the service of the State had been shown, Uncle Sam brought in his national helpers, as Red Cross, Postal Service, Money. A flag song ended the first episode.

The Past was ushered in by a fifth-grade child who asked, "Where did all these things come from?"

COLUMBIA: "Unto the ages long ago,

This land of ours so free,
Owes much of its present greatness
And much of its liberty.

"The caveman gave you fire and tools,
Your homes to build and heat,
From the land of Homer and Sappho,
Greece lays her art at your feet.

"Unto this land so just and true,
Rome gave her laws to be
The founding of a mighty race
And a land of democracy.

"The books of the Middle Ages,
The gifts of Greece and Rome,
The discoverers and explorers brought,
When they found this land, our home."

A fire dance by the seventh grade quickly changed to a procession showing the development of tools. The traders of early times from Greece, Rome, and the Vikings to the times of Marco Polo passed in rapid review across the stage. The early explorers followed.

The progress accomplished by the development of the book was shown by a train headed by Oral Tradition. The

simple announcements with which they heralded their appearance were culled from the longer written speeches given here.

CAVE MEN

The Cave Men gave the world the ways of keeping records by pitting stones, notching sticks, and knotting cords. Later on we scratched and painted beautiful pictures on the walls of our caves and on the handles of our knives.

INDIANS

We Indians wrote with pictures on skins and birch bark with charred sticks.

ASSYRIANS

I, an Assyrian, helped the world with a book. We did our writing on clay tablets. We used bone instruments with triangular ends.

EGYPTIANS

Papyrus is my gift. I represent the first paper made from the reeds of the swamp, woven tight, and pressed flat. We Egyptians gave the first written language. We wrote on papyrus, wood, and stone, and our letters were pictures.

THE SCROLL

Early peoples made scrolls for books and read them from end to end. Later on, we blocked off our stories into pages to make the scroll easier to read.

THE CHINESE SCROLL

I represent the Chinese Scroll. I am a long piece of paper folded into as many pages as you wish and bound together at the back. My pages could only be written on one side because my leaves were not cut.

THE MEDIEVAL MONKS

We monks worked day in and day out to give you beautiful hand-printed and painted books, so that you may learn now and later on in life.

COLOR GRINDER

I am a little color grinder. I helped the monks of the Middle Ages by grinding up colors, pounding gold, making and ruling the parchment pages, making glue, and getting egg whites to stick the colors on.

JOHN GUTENBERG

John Gutenberg, the inventor of moveable type, gave you the printing press, so that you may print books of all kinds. Before I lived poor people could not be educated, but now everyone may learn.

THE HOE CYLINDER PRESS

I am the printing press, the laughter and tears of the world. By me, we turn out thousands of pages each hour. I shall never die until all peoples are nothing but dust.

* * * * *

Columbus, landing on American shores and meeting the Indians, marked the beginning of American development. Colonization led into the age of progress. The spirit of progress followed the stately minutus with this speech:

PROGRESS: "I am the spirit of progress. I will now show you what I have done during the last one hundred years. Without the help of my attendants, electricity, steam, and raw materials, I would be powerless. My attendants and I have made men want to help to make our country grow by inventing machines which will do the work faster and better with each improvement. Spinning wheels and hand looms are now things of the past. Trains, steamboats, automobiles, street cars, and aeroplanes carry people from one part of the country to another. Messages can be sent almost instantly by telegraph, telephone, cable, wireless, and radio. The farmer no longer plods behind his horse to reap his harvest, but rides in state in tractor-driven farm machinery. Peep into the office of a modern business man and see how I have changed the world with inventions."

The pageant ended with the appearance of Uncle Sam, accompanied by his home and foreign possessions. After a formal dance, they stood at attention and Columbia spoke.

COLUMBIA: "Endowed by gifts of the ages,

May the children of the future see,
A brotherhood of Nations
And a world of democracy."

Standing reverently with bowed heads, the children closed the pageant with a prayer song for the future.

The pageant was over, the children's pageant. Subject-matter had been so organized that history is a living, growing subject instead of dead facts. The crude efforts in dance and spoken part were sincerely and understandingly rendered. There had grown finer group spirit, better individual sportsmanship in a joyous appreciation of creative effort.

"Oh, I just loved it! And weren't you proud!" the erstwhile composer said as we parted in the growing twilight and I started home, thinking of the next pageant.

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Recent Happenings in the Social Studies

BY COMMITTEE ON CURRENT INFORMATION OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES
W. G. Kimmel, Chairman

The Commission on Direction of the Investigation of History and Other Social Studies in the Schools, sponsored by the American Historical Association, at a meeting on November 7-8 in New York City, discussed and approved the proposed testing program under the direction of Truman L. Kelley. The proposed plan had previously been considered by the Advisory Committee on Tests.

The personnel of the different advisory committees thus far appointed and at work include:

Advisory Committee on Objectives: Charles A. Beard, New Milford, Conn.; Boyd H. Bode, Ohio State University; Guy Stanton Ford, University of Minnesota; Charles E. Merriam, University of Chicago; Harold Rugg, Teachers College, Columbia University; A. C. Krey, University of Minnesota.

Advisory Committee on Tests: Frank W. Ballou, Superintendent of Schools, Washington, D. C.; Isaiah Bowman, American Geographical Society, New York City; Howard C. Hill, University of Chicago; Ernest Horn, University of Iowa; Henry Johnson, Teachers College, Columbia University; Ben Wood, Columbia University; A. C. Krey, Chairman.

Advisory Committee on Public Relations: Frank W. Ballou, Superintendent of Schools, Washington, D. C.; Ada Comstock, President, Radcliffe College; John A. Fairlie, University of Illinois; A. C. Krey, University of Minnesota; Robert S. Lynd, Social Science Research Council, New York City, and Jesse H. Newlon, Chairman, Director, Lincoln School of Teachers College.

School administrators, teachers of the social studies, and other interested groups have been generous in assistance given to the staff of the investigation. Communications from individuals who are interested in current activities of the investigation should be sent to 316, Library, University of Minnesota, or 610 Fayerweather Hall, Columbia University, New York City.

In the November issue of *School Review*, Dewey A. Stabler presents several types of evidence on "The Relation Between the Civic Information Possessed by Ninth-Grade Pupils and Their Practices in Citizenship." The subject of the investigation was 120 ninth-grade pupils in a junior high school. The method involved rather detailed checks of civic deficiencies as observed in school situations, and the administration of the Hill tests of civic information and civic attitudes, with certain correlations for the group; divided on the basis of ability, of civic deficiencies with civic information and civic attitudes. Findings include: (1) "whispering or talking aloud in the classroom, etc., ranked first in civic deficiencies, "causing disturbances" ranked third, while "chewing gum during school hours" ranked tenth; (2) when the civic deficiencies are grouped in terms of types, "disorder in school" ranked first, "lack of industry" ranked second, and "failure to carry out responsibilities" ranked third; (3) when the pupils are divided into four groups on the basis of intelligence, test results, and grades, there are some civic deficiencies for all groups, but the lowest group show the largest number of such deficiencies; (4) a correlation of .68 was found between the number of civic deficiencies and the average monthly citizenship marks assigned by teachers; (5) the lowest correlation between the number of civic deficiencies checked by teachers was .72; (6) a correlation of .41 was found between the total average scores on the tests and the number of civic deficiencies, while correlations of .28 and .26 were found between the intelligence quotients and the scores on the tests of civic attitudes and information. No data are given on the extra-school environment of the pupils, the curriculum offerings of the school, and the attempts made by the school to provide for pupil participation.

The autumn number of the *Michigan History Magazine* (Lansing, Michigan Historical Commission) contains the sub-title "Teachers' Number." R. M. Tryon, in "Teaching State History in the High School," points out the fact that state history as a separate subject has never received much attention in high school courses, with no signs that it is likely to receive more attention in the future. In the elementary schools, on the other hand, the teaching of state history is required in thirty-five states by law or by direction of state departments of education. The principal reasons for this requirement include:

1. The traditional belief in the large importance of the state in the history of our country.

2. The influence of the educational doctrine of John Dewey and his followers which placed so much emphasis on the utilization of the local environment in the education of children.

3. The movement in the field of curriculum-making in history to place less and less stress on ancient history and more and more emphasis on modern movements.

4. The never-ceasing agitation of well-organized State History Associations.

The protagonists of state history will not succeed in placing it in the high school curriculum, which is overcrowded. There are no suitable materials available for use by pupils and teachers and no teachers prepared to teach the subject. There is also the difficulty of maintaining a proper balance between the specific state and specific national phases of the materials to be studied.

Reasons in favor of the teaching of state history in secondary schools are: (1) the development of intelligent state pride; (2) it informs pupils concerning their environments and furnishes a background for interpreting their environment; (3) it provides illustrative material as an aid in the understanding of national history; (4) it lends reality to and gives training in handling historical material; (5) it furnishes the teacher with opportunities to proceed from the concrete to the abstract in teaching. Arguments opposed to the teaching of state history in secondary schools are: (1) the cosmopolitan area has displaced the state area in many public attitudes and policies; (2) geographic features, not state boundaries, often explain many social, economic, and industrial conditions; (3) the mobility of people in modern life results in many people living, working, and voting in states other than the one in which they were educated, with the result that development of local pride misses its goal; (4) state history taught separately violates the fundamental principle of learning, that is, proceeding from the whole to related parts; (5) there is no reason for teaching state history provided national history is well taught. Source material and secondary discussions of state history can readily be incorporated in the courses which deal with national history.

Data on the status of state history in elementary schools and the amount of space devoted to national history in state history textbooks are presented in two tables.

In the same issue, Claude S. Larzelere presents "The Teaching of Michigan History"; L. A. Chase discusses "The Study of Michigan History"; O. W. Mosher, Jr., presents "Suggestions for School Historical Programs and Museums," and Eleanor Griffin McNett outlines a plan for "A Junior Pioneer League." There are also facts and questions on Michigan history, a chronological outline, suggestions and topics for reports, and useful bibliographical aids.

M. E. Lignon, in "Training and Teaching Combinations of Teachers in Accredited Secondary Schools of the South," in the November issue of *School Life*, presents data of more than usual interest to persons engaged in teaching the social studies. Facts were tabulated for

1,499 teachers of the social studies, 1,024 of whom teach social studies exclusively (a larger number for all subjects other than English and mathematics), while 118 teach social studies and English, 93 social studies and mathematics, 79 social studies and science, 45 social studies and Latin, and 35 social studies and Spanish. Other combinations are included in a smaller number of cases. Only 42.84 per cent. of the teachers of all subjects are teaching the subject in which they majored in college, only 31.06 per cent. of majors in education are teaching their first minor, while 26.11 per cent. of majors in education are teaching subjects in which they had neither majors nor minors in college and 13.92 per cent. of majors in arts and sciences are also teaching subjects in which they had neither majors nor minors.

The autumn issue of *Progressive Education* is entitled "New Trends in Public School Education." The description and explanations of activities in many school systems are admirably illustrated with photographs and reproductions of children's work. Many of the articles are of interest to teachers of the social studies. Specific mention of procedures in the social studies include Elizabeth Lindemann, "Making History Live"; Frances Presler, "Group and Creative Activities in the Winnetka Public Schools"; Lucy Sprague Mitchell, "Geography with Five-Year Olds"; Helen Mary Reynolds, "Problems Involved in Curricular Revision in the Elementary Schools of Seattle"; Marion Van Campen, "Projects as They Grew in the Norristown Schools." The majority of the illustrations depict aspects of the social studies, and should be of inestimable value to teachers as suggested activities.

In the October issue of *California Quarterly of Secondary Education*, Ralph H. Bush, in "Curricular Problems in the Junior College," describes an experiment with social science as the core of the curriculum in the Santa Monica Junior College. Entering students enroll in a course in citizenship (sociological implications) during the first semester, a course in psychology in the second semester, a course in philosophy during the third semester, followed by a course in applied economics during the fourth semester. All are three-hour courses.

Earl W. Anderson and Esther M. Stubbs report an investigation of "Salaries of Inexperienced Teachers" in the September 25th issue of *Educational Research Bulletin*. The data were tabulated from the records of the Ohio State Department of Education for the school year 1928-1929. The mean salary for all inexperienced teachers was \$1,399, while the median salary was \$1,292. The range of salaries of 65 men as inexperienced teachers of history was \$1,800-\$1,000, with the median salary, \$1,363, while for 102 women as inexperienced teachers of history, the range was \$1,500 to \$840, with the median, \$1,255. Forty-seven men teaching social science reported a range of salaries \$1,800-\$1,000, with a median, \$1,395, while 61 women reported a range of \$1,400-\$1,050, with the median, \$1,242. Men teaching civics numbered 29, with a range of salaries \$1,800-\$1,000, with the median, \$1,335, while 43 women teaching civics reported a range of \$1,400-\$1,050, with the median, \$1,260. Seven men teaching economics report a range of salaries \$1,600-\$1,300, with the median, \$1,450, while ten women report a range of \$1,300-\$1,100, with the median of \$1,260. Eighteen men teaching sociology report a range of salaries \$1,600-\$1,200, with the median, \$1,335, while 17 women report a range of \$1,300-\$1,070, with the median, \$1,245. There is much overlapping as only two men and four women were teaching history as the only subject and only two men were teaching sociology as the only subject. Data for other teachers are listed under as many categories as the number of subjects they teach.

In the same issue Robert W. Edmiston, in "Objective Tests at Different Ability Levels," presents correlations between different types of tests in geography.

Mary Shannon Smith, *Guide to Written Work in History and Social Science*, 4th edition (Raleigh, N. C.: Edwards & Broughton Co., 1929, 24 pp., 35 cents), is intended for the guidance of college students. The pamphlet includes a series of technical suggestions for notebook work; directions for the preparation of library reading notes, the making of a bibliography; suggestions for writing written lessons and examinations; and directions for the writing of term papers. There is a useful bibliography.

Copies of the following workbooks have been received: Barnes, Charles C. *Directive Study Sheets in World History for High School Students*. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1929. Pp. ix, 142.

Perkins, Clarence. *A Directed Study Notebook for World History*. Rand McNally & Co., 1929. Pp. 70, plus outline maps.

Rugg, Harold, and Mendenhall, James E. *Pupil's Workbook to Accompany an Introduction to American Civilization*. Ginn & Co., 1929. Pp. xiv, 80.

Ulery, Cloye B. *Mace American History Notebook*. Rand McNally Co., 1929. Pp. 99.

Webb, Walter P. *A Workbook in United States History for Use with The Growth of a Nation*. Row, Peter-Pon & Co., 1929. Pp. 143.

A. S. Beatman, in the November issue of *Bulletin of High Points* (New York City), contributes "Modernizing Modern European History." The background of the work of the present committee is sketched briefly, and the units of the new syllabus are listed and discussed at some length. A feature of the approach is a cross-sectional view of life in a unit "Europe in 1750." Units which are not conventionally found in courses include: Labor Movement, Development of Science, Nationalism, Imperialism, Development of Literature, Painting, Music, and Architecture, and Some Social Movements. As a report of progress in the work of the committee, the writer outlines certain phases of the material which are to be finished. The committee regards its work as a tentative syllabus for trial and experimental use in the schools.

In the October issue of the *Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals*, Harriet Smith presents a series of contributions which geography may make to the elementary school curriculum entitled, "Geography for a New World" (Abstract). Contributions made by geography include: (1) it stresses people in relation to their environment; (2) it lays foundations for peace; (3) it tends toward world brotherhood; (4) it has its own scientific content; (5) it helps to develop the conception of a vast lapse of time; (6) its interpretation adds depth to the curriculum, and (7) it is one of the new humanities.

Dora B. Lantrip, in the same issue, describes a plan of "Student-Participation in School Government."

Edwin H. Reeder, in "Lessons in Our Schools No. IV. A Lesson in History," in the November issue of *Teachers College Record* outlines the major phases of a lesson in the fourth grade which involved the making of sketches or drawings. The teacher in connection with this work called upon the special teacher of art for suggestions, and the pupils made rough drawings and stated their difficulties in advance of the period during which they had the assistance of the art teacher. The writer draws certain generalizations from the procedure used in the co-operation of the teacher which may be suggestive for supervisors and administrators.

The November issue of *The Journal of Education and School World* (London) includes the second of a series of articles entitled, "Geography for the School Certificate and Matriculation Examination II: Practical Geography: Experimental and Open Air Geography," by a "Teacher and Examiner of Wide Experience." The first article appeared in the August issue. H. E. Howard, in the November issue, presents a method of instruction under the

title, "Self-Expression in History." The plan is used primarily with boys who are in the "post-primary" classes. It includes three periods per week devoted to history. During the first period the story of the material is told; this is followed by a free laboratory period in which pupils develop and illustrate the material in their notebooks, while in the third period there are free activities covering the first lesson in the form of debates, plays, mock-trials, and the like. The content is ancient history, and in the following year English medieval history is studied. The writer states that the plan has many of the advantages of the Dalton plan, and also maintains the unity of the class.

E. H. Dance, in the September issue of *The Journal of Education and School World* (London), contributes "History Reading for School Examinations: V. Economic and Social History." Social history as a school subject is a new thing, although it has interested the general reader during the last century. The discussion centers about requirements for the history examinations. There is a valuable bibliography of books covering the period 1066-1900.

In the September issue of *Co-operative School Bulletin*, Virgil Stinebaugh discusses "The Attitude of the Public Toward the Elementary School Curriculum," based on replies to a questionnaire. Citizenship was regarded as "very important" by 77 persons, "important" by 28, and "not important" by six persons. Geography was rated as very important by 67 persons, important by 45 persons, and not important by two persons. History was regarded as very important by 70 persons, important by 44 persons, while one person regarded history as not important. Arithmetic and grammar were the subjects regarded as of highest importance by the largest number of persons.

The September issue of *Co-operative School Bulletin* (Auburn, Ind.) contains a "Co-operative U. S. History and Civics Test: Test B." A "United States History Test (High School)," divided into eleven parts and including items of the new type and the conventional examination type, is found in the October issue of the same publication.

In the June issue of *Sierra Educational News*, Mrs. Helen L. Clement describes "The Ideal City: A Successful Project: Citizenship as We Teach It in Fifth Grade." A plan of "self-government," mass meetings, the development of a charter, salute to the national and city flags, the repeating of a creed, and trials for offenders, are some of the forms and activities in which the children engage.

Sheldon Fletcher, in the September issue of *Bulletin of High Points* (New York City), reports an investigation of "Assigned and Voluntary Reading in Their Relation to Scholarship." With many handicaps in handling a reading program common to a large metropolitan high school enumerated, the writer collected data for three weeks in December (after the required reading for the semester had been completed) and for a similar period in March (when the required reading was largest in amount). Findings include: (1) 78.5 per cent. of assigned reading in European history is reported for March, with only 32.0 per cent. for December; (2) 86.7 per cent. of assigned reading in United States history is reported for March, as compared with only 42.4 per cent. in December; (3) voluntary reading in European history dropped from 44.0 per cent. in December to 2.0 per cent. in March; (4) while in United States history the amount of voluntary reading dropped from 56.6 per cent. to 1.5 per cent.; (5) the percentage of reading in history increased from 14.7 per cent. in December to 51.8 per cent. of the total amount for all subjects in March.

In the June issue of *Journal of Home Economics*, Ada Z. Fish describes "Teaching Human Relationships to High School Girls." The girls, enrolled in courses in home

economics, are interested in a course in the twelfth grade in which the aim is to awaken "a vision which shall result in individual and social betterment." The objectives, which are stressed, include better home relationships and appreciation of parents, better understanding of associates and self, greater love for children, and high ideals in the founding of homes. The procedure centers about problems which are real and practical. There is a close correlation between the course and a parallel course given by the school physician, and much of the information gained in a preceding course in social biology. A term paper is required. Excerpts from some term papers are included.

Ellen Gleditsch, in the June issue of *The Journal of the American Association of University Women*, discusses "International Understanding." In the same issue appears "Modern Criticism and History Textbooks: Report of a Nation-Wide Survey of the Committee on Historical Textbooks," Laura F. Ulrich, chairman. Following a brief historical sketch of previous work in the field, the report deals with a study of history textbooks, sponsored by the World Federation of Educational Associations and the American Association of University Women, in which forty teachers in grade schools, high schools, and colleges participated. A statement of standards was formulated, and a series of twelve questions were sent to each teacher who co-operated.

Aside from some of the older texts, the textbooks generally conform to modern needs. The most serious criticisms are those of omission. While little apparent direct braggadocio is found in textbooks, there is considerable indirect self-glorification. With respect to relative emphasis upon different phases of subject-matter, the co-operating teachers expressed opinions, as follows:

High school texts:

	Percentage of the whole (book)
Military history	10-15
Social history	15-20
Economic history	15-20
Political history	50-55

Grade school texts:

Military history	16 2/3
Social history	33
Economic history	33
Political history	16 2/3

The committee recommends that textbooks "be criticized from the standpoint of accuracy and correctness of impression left on the mind after reading them." A standing committee on textbooks is advised, with a view to keeping in touch with progressive thought on the teaching of history, to evaluate new texts as published, and to create a public opinion favorable to progressive texts provided they do not meet established standards.

The following observations of the committee are disquieting, but probably true:

"After all is said and done, the subjects are taught in the school which public opinion demands and textbooks are written with the emphasis which public opinion demands. The textbook which does not represent these demands will find no place in the schools. The teachers in the schools reflect to a large extent the public opinion of their communities."

The *China Journal* for September, 1929, has a stirring editorial by Arthur deC. Sowerby appealing for a statesmanlike settlement of the difficulties with Russia, thus giving the world an example of how disputes may be settled by conferences before rather than after the two countries have indulged in conflict in the field. The same issue contains valuable articles on Chinese Chronology, by A. M. Tracey; Woodward, by John C. Ferguson; on Chinese Coins, by A. M. Tracey Woodward; and on Ancient Manchuria, by V. K. Arseniev.

Book Reviews

EDITED BY PROFESSORS HARRY J. CARMAN AND J. BARTLET BREBNER, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

Parliament and the British Empire. By Robert Livingston Schuyler. New York: Columbia University Press, 1929. 279 pp. \$3.75.

When, in 1926, the British Empire was formally recognized as having separated, amoeba-like, into both an empire and a commonwealth, it was evident that a constitutional revolution of first-rate importance had taken place. The evolution of Dominion status from the time when the power of the British Parliament was transcendent, but not unquestioned, to a day when there is a colonial empire proper and a group of "autonomous Communities," not to mention India, is the province of Professor Schuyler in this discussion of "constitutional controversies concerning imperial legislative jurisdiction."

The first chapter, which ranks as one of the finest pieces of historical writing this reviewer has read in some time, satisfying as it does every canon of criticism, was largely stimulated by Professor C. H. McIlwain's contention that, in general, history sustained the radical arguments at the time of the American Revolution. In coming to this unorthodox conclusion—unorthodox, that is, among students—Professor McIlwain had examined a variety of precedents wherein the sovereign power of parliament was called into question. Professor Schuyler's conclusion, namely, that as far back as we can go into the history of parliament we find it exercising authority over the king's dominions, is based upon precedents identical with or similar to those employed by Professor McIlwain. To reach this conclusion the constitutional relations of England with Wales, the Channel Islands, and the Isle of Man from the thirteenth to the seventeenth centuries are investigated; the acts of parliament and the considered opinions of judges are examined and weighed. The testimony is varied and sound. Had its bulk been increased, the only result would have been the piling up of corroborative evidence. The conclusion will stand.

Having concerned himself with the centuries before the "Puritan Revolution," Professor Schuyler next turns to Ireland and its imperial significance throughout the period from 1640 to 1783. The Irish precedent had been worked very hard by Professor McIlwain, as it was by the American separatists, and was the main prop of his conclusion. Here again, however, precedents seem to favor the view that the English Parliament could legally legislate for Ireland. Though the Irish claims for legislative independence were well served by Patrick Darcy and William Molyneaux, it was in the realm of equity, not of law or history, that their contention was best grounded. Clio is an unruly handmaid when overworked by propaganda and hides boomerangs in her flowing robes.

In the next two chapters Professor Schuyler carries us to newer and more disparate imperial connections, the West Indies. The first briefly deals with an early colonial protest against parliamentary sovereignty. Though ostensibly the inhabitants of Barbadoes were protesting the authority of the Commonwealth Parliament when they refused obedience to its laws in 1650 and 1651, it is also evident that they implicitly denied "the right of any English Parliament, even a legal one, to legislate for them." Later on in the century the Barbadians looked favorably upon the idea of sending representatives to Parliament, thus presaging an interest in imperial consolidation, a problem that was to be so freely discussed at the time of the American Revolution.

From this seventeenth-century dispute we go to that heated controversy of the nineteenth, which revolved around the abolition of the slave trade and the emancipation of the slaves. In order to make the first more effective, Parliament took steps in 1815 to secure the registration of all slaves in the West Indies. The West Indian assemblies resolved that such a bill was an unconstitutional interference in the internal affairs of the respective colonies.

More than that, however, elaborate pamphlets were written against the bill. In these, as in the later agitation turning on emancipation, great emphasis was placed on the American Revolutionary precedent where arguments for colonial home rule emanated from leading colonial advocates. Again, the West Indians made much of what was known as the Renunciation Act of 1778, in which, it was claimed, Parliament was considered to have abandoned her internal legislative powers over the colonies. The Registry Bill was withdrawn, though certainly not because the colonial arguments carried conviction, since in 1833 the Emancipation Act, a much more flagrant interference in local concerns, was passed. The constitutional battle, which in Jamaica especially almost became a bloody one, was fought all through the remainder of the decade. But the authority of Parliament stood, and in 1865 the Colonial Laws Validity Act expressly stated that however extensive the authority of a colonial legislature might be, its enactments might legally be overridden by an Act of Parliament.

Professor Schuyler's final chapter is concerned with "the present position," and is largely a résumé of what has taken place in the past one hundred years. Its most pregnant point consists in a warning that the various imperial crises, which he has touched at greater or less length, did not immediately affect the course of imperial organization. Not infrequently modern historians have picked up scattered, almost random, dicta and seen in their authors prophets of the modern commonwealth. It was hardly thus. A more careful reading of them tends to show that the vast majority had no conception of the form the new empire would take. Their apparently remarkable generalizations were oftener the result of heat than of thought. Yet we need not depreciate their anticipations, for after all, if they did not write constitutions, they did dream dreams of almost miraculous prescience.

In conclusion, may it be said that if the reviewer has given an episodic impression of this volume, the fault lies in him, not in the book. *Parliament and the British Empire* is a constitutional history of the British Empire, a closely knit and logical book. In it Professor Schuyler has given us a pioneer work of sterling scholarship marked by lucid presentation, which is worthy of a discriminative welcome.

CHARLES F. MULLETT.

University of Missouri.

A History of Italy, 1871-1915. By Benedetto Croce. Translated by Cecilia M. Ady. New York: Oxford University Press, 1929. 333 pp.

A history of Italy from the pen of one of her foremost living philosophers must needs be of interest to any serious student of European affairs. And Croce's volume is interesting throughout the entire 288 pages of its text. Remarkably fair and detached in treatment, excellently organized, critical in judgments expressed, complete and yet anything but wordy, this book fills a real gap in the English literature on the infancy and adolescence of the unified Italian kingdom. In a sympathetic, philosophic, judicious way, Croce describes the internal upheavals and the growing pains of the young monarchy—so inexperienced, so impatient, so clumsy, and so anxious to count for something in this big world. Idealistic and yet practical, sentimental but shrewdly aware of material advantages, hot-headed but possessed of craft, groping in the dark and experimenting with every form of government in the gamut from liberalism to autocracy, the Italy of 1871-1915 gradually rose to the rank of a Great Power, prepared to make its definite contribution to world civilization. Policies wavered, cabinets rose and fell, patriots were abused, honest men were murdered, principles were distorted, politics were embittered by hatred and violence, blunders were perpetrated constantly, foreigners laughed

at Italy and snatched African morsels from her very grasp, but why should it have been otherwise? Not every land could spring full-grown from out a war, like the German Empire. A totally disproportionate number of Italians were overeager to have their country regain the grandeur of Rome overnight. Their schemes only served to increase the unrest and dissatisfaction—material and spiritual.

All this and more is depicted in charming style by Croce. His chapters are word pictures of the political, economic, social, and intellectual state of Italy in the four and one-half decades under consideration. Especially good are the chapters devoted to "Thought and Ideals" and to "The Advance of Culture and Spiritual Unrest." Nowhere in the volume, as has been said, is there any sign of undue partisanship or an attempt to avoid censure where censure is due, yet not for one moment could the reader doubt that the author is himself an Italian. Moreover, humanity, sentimentality, a yearning to reform the world, and, in general, a "cult of the gentler passions" are probably overstressed as characteristic of the Italian people. Did one judge these people in this regard solely upon the basis of what Croce says of them in his history, the Italians would appear to be unnaturally different from all the other people of at least the western world.

It is unfortunate that Croce should have been unable to refrain from including in the volume such remarks as "historians are usually professors or other simple-minded people," or that it is the "secret desire of the hearts" of historians "that things should remain as they are." He also appears to have a special dislike for Bismarck. But these things, though a little irritating, hardly mar the value of the book. Benedetto Croce is to be complimented upon a splendid performance.

WALTER C. LANGSAM.

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Between War and Peace. By Florence Brewer Boeckel. The Macmillan Co., New York, 1928. x, 591 pp. \$2.50.
War! Behind the Smoke Screen. By William C. Allen. The John C. Winston Co., Philadelphia, 1929. vii, 192 pp. \$2.00.

The two volumes herewith reviewed are recent additions to the flood of material appearing upon problems pertaining to international relations and world peace. A working bibliography on these matters today must include more titles than ten years ago would have been dreamed of, and in the absolutely required number would come at least the volume *Between War and Peace*.

It is certainly remaining within the limits of strict accuracy to observe that this book is the *sine qua non* for an intelligent understanding of the scope and complexity of contemporary American public opinion regarding international amity and conciliation. The volume is published as the result of the unique accomplishments of the National Council for the Prevention of War in the last seven years. I use the word "unique," because whatever the reader may think of the activities of the Council, he must admit that there is probably nothing else in America comparable to it.

Between War and Peace has four main parts, a very fair index, and as appendices the Covenant of the League of Nations and the text of the multi-lateral treaty that went into effect July 24, 1929, commonly called the Kellogg treaty. Part One is entitled, "Focusing the Demand for Peace." Briefly but trenchantly it demolishes the argument that war is made inevitable by the facts of human nature. This, of course, is sheer foolishness, as every psychologist knows. It is not human nature that produces the governmental response called war; it is the social heritage which permits a certain instinct to find release in that way. Different bounds of the permissible in social heritage produce different responses of the same instinct. Once people realize this, public opinion can demand from its government that the inevitable disputes of human intercourse be settled in a judicial manner. This part includes a portion of the famous address by ex-Ambassador Houghton at Harvard in June, 1927.

Part Two is devoted to "Material of Interest to Special Groups." Education and all its ramifications, the Church,

Women, Commerce, Labor, Farmers, War Veterans, Young People—each one of these social groups is discussed, along with a comment on what each is doing in the way of organized peace education, or the building up of public opinion. Space does not permit an analysis of what each group is doing. To this reviewer the most significant sections are those devoted respectively to "Commerce" and "War Veterans." The extent to which even the United States is interdependent upon all the nations of the world is poorly comprehended by many people. For the person who blithely imagines that war in Europe can in no wise affect us, there can be no better antidote than the pages from 124-142, together with a brief discussion on pages 458-60. It is correct to conclude that the modern world needs amicable union and the suppression of warfare just as much as the thirteen wrangling States did in 1787. The chapter on "War Veterans" is especially apropos, in view of what recently happened at the 1929 Convention of the Legion at Louisville. Has the American Legion forgotten their National Commander's words on Armistice Day, 1923? Has it forgotten the special report of its own Committee of 1925? Perhaps a rereading of their past decisions would be not without benefit in these modern times.

Part Three contains brief chapters on many of the A-B-C's of present-day international relations. While not inclusive, these are helpful starting-points towards a fuller understanding of the problems involved. Such matters as the League of Nations and the International Labor Organization, the World Court, Arbitration, the Kellogg Treaty, International Law, Limitation of Armament, Pacifism, Militarism, the Monroe Doctrine, Imperialism, World Population and Immigration, the War Power in the United States Government, War Debts and Reparations, War Costs—these are discussed in every instance accurately and to the point. All teachers of United States history should be familiar with the main points in most of them, for our country has had a singularly honorable record regarding the majority of these matters.

Especially interesting to this reviewer was the chapter on "United States Military Policy." In it the author points out by repeated citations from the Secretary of the Interior, under whose general jurisdiction the Land-grant Colleges come, that nothing in the law of 1862 or any other law of Congress makes the R. O. T. C. work compulsory upon such colleges. This is widely believed and often stated as a fact. By more citations of authority the physical education value of military training is disproved. Lieutenant-Colonel Herman J. Koehler, in charge of the physical training of officers' training camps during the war, is quoted as saying: "I deny absolutely that military drill contains one worthy feature which cannot be duplicated in every well-equipped gymnasium in the country today."

Part Four contains materials for a working program of Peace. These include a very helpful chapter, entitled, "What You Can Do for Peace," a comprehensive list of organizations in the United States working for peace, and an admirable thirty-eight-page bibliography. Specially significant quotations which deserve wide attention are found on the following pages: 431, 437, 441, 443-44, 454-55, 482, 484, 489, 490-92, 507.

War! Behind the Smoke Screen is an entirely different kind of book. The author has evidently travelled widely, lived long, and thought deeply. Out of his extensive knowledge he has put together a more or less patchy book. The jacket-cover declares that some years ago President Hoover stated, "The next war will be the cemetery of civilization," and goes on to say that this book makes that prediction seem true. In a sense, it does. Much in the book is familiar to any student of the World War, but there are two or three sections that contain some new slants. One of these is the discussion, pages 71-80, on profiteering in England during the war; another is the chapter, pages 115-134, describing conscientious objectors in England from 1914-18.

Of the two volumes, *Between War and Peace* is by far the more significant. I bespeak for it among all thoughtful historians and history teachers a widespread perusal and much honest meditation.

DUANE SQUIRES.

State Teachers College, Mayville, N. D.

Problems of the Pacific. Proceedings of the Second Conference of the Institute of Pacific Relations, Honolulu, Hawaii, 1927. Edited by J. B. Condliffe. University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1928. xiv, 630 pp. \$3.00.

This handsome and well-planned volume, the second of a series, preserves the record of the proceedings of a conference held under the auspices of the Institute of Pacific Relations at Honolulu during the summer of 1927, when one hundred and thirty-seven unofficial and uninstructed delegates from ten nations bordering on the Pacific Ocean met to discuss their countries' common problems.

A circumstance adding enormously to the interest and value of the book is the fact that the delegates who attended the conference and made the speeches and took part in the discussions were able to do so without laying any responsibility for their words upon their governments, or even upon any particular national group. With each representing his own opinion, all were able to express their prejudices and policies in a frank, though friendly, manner; and in only a few instances were the delegates forced to listen to formal and futile expressions of polite good-will. Thus, in the series of short papers making up the first section of the volume, wherein delegates expressed the attitude of each of the national groups on problems which concerned their States, the Australian spokesman presented succinctly the case for the protection of Australian culture against Asiatic immigration; the speaker from China stated bluntly his hostility toward the humiliating treaties existing between his country and foreign powers, and declared the intention of his people to be rid of them; and the British representative expressed a frank preference for the Four Power Pact over the Anglo-Japanese Alliance.

In the second section of the book are presented the summaries of the round table discussions. Once more, in the interests of frankness, these discussions were not open to the public or the press, and in the summaries here printed the names of the speakers are omitted. Eleven major problems were considered, ranging from Tariff Autonomy in China to International Education and Communication, and a vast body of valuable references to documentary and secondary source-material has been printed after each discussion.

Much of the value of the book for students of Pacific affairs will lie in the last section, of some 400 pages. Here, in the form of monographs, is presented a wide choice of subjects, written and organized in scholarly fashion, which were drawn up for the conference on the subjects covered at the round table meetings. Prepared by competent authorities in each field, they alone would suffice to make the volume an indispensable storehouse of information on the political, social, and economic problems of the Pacific area.

The editor, Professor J. B. Condliffe, of New Zealand, deserves congratulations on the able organization and presentation of the proceedings of the conference.

MILTON OFFUTT.

Princeton University.

A Bibliography of Oliver Cromwell. By Wilbur Cortez Abbott. Harvard University Press, Cambridge, 1929. xxviii, 540 pp. \$12.50.

After the most violent fluctuations in estimation to which a man can be subject, Oliver Cromwell in the twentieth century has come reasonably into his own. His merits as preserver of the peace when men were so divided in opinion as to fall into anarchy, as a founder of empire, as politician and statesman, and as strategist and tactician, have found modern demonstrations; and it seems unlikely that he will again figure as the villain he was to the late seventeenth century or the hero he was to Carlyle. This circumstance contributed towards encouraging Professor Ab-

bott of Harvard in his monumental labor of love. It contains three lists: one of three thousand, five hundred, and twenty items of printed material, described critically and arranged alphabetically by years (there are only five breaks, 1672, 1688, 1709, 1729, 1778-9, from 1640 to the present day); a catalogue of seven hundred and two portraits of Cromwell; and a group of lists including sixty-two satirical prints, eight busts, six masks, twenty medals, three statues, three plaques, and fourteen miscellaneous drawings. These are accompanied by a preface of explanation which disclaims completeness and absolute accuracy, but makes some convincing arguments for the worth of such an effort; a thoughtful and stimulating but disappointingly short essay on "The Historic Cromwell"; and a most thoughtful system of cross references and indexes. There are as illustrations two Robert Walker portraits in the possession of the author.

The above description is sufficient to corroborate the statement that another great labor-saving device has been manufactured for students. Bibliographies are as necessary almost, and as useful, as dictionaries. They are unfortunately much rarer, and, still more unfortunately, are not always made by scholars of the studies which they are meant to serve. In this case the breadth of imagination and scholarship of the author are shown in the preface and the introductory essay. The former reveals such interesting phenomena as "that the years preceding the French Revolution witnessed a growing interest in Charles I's trial and execution," and that the late nineteenth century "found imperial Germany concerned with Cromwell's contributions to the art of war and his adventures in the field of 'Politik,' especially 'Welt Politik.'" The latter is, of course, well-informed and informing, but it is as well highly personal and philosophical in a most pleasing way. Its interest is, on the whole, greatest for those who philosophize about history and human attainment, but it serves excellently also to indicate, not so much the author's idea of Cromwell's place in history, as the place which historiography has actually given him, and the steps by which this came about.

The author asks for *addenda*, *corrigenda*, and *delenda*. Not many persons are in a position to supply them, and all that can be provided here is the suggestion that the Report of the Public Archives of Canada for 1923 perhaps deserves inclusion for its printing of the Cromwellian papers relative to the odd capture of Acadia in 1654, and to the still odder arrangements made by Cromwell for its retention as a fief. It was in connection with this that a copyist's error led to what is now Nova Scotia being held, among other things, for a consideration of twenty mouse-skins a year!—B.

Great Conquerors of South and Central America. By A. Hyatt Verrill. D. Appleton and Company, New York, 1929. iv, 389 pages.

The Encomienda in New Spain, Forced Native Labor in the Spanish Colonies, 1492-1550. By Lesley Byrd Simpson, University of California Press, Berkeley, 1929. viii, 297 pages.

The conquest of Spain's immense empire in America was the work of individuals acting collectively or separately and at their own expense. In the sixteenth century the Spanish government had little money to devote to overseas enterprises, but it encouraged its citizens to go to the Indies and win glory and fortune whenever possible. Hence, many restless persons went to America, frequently risking all they had in the gamble. These facts account in great measure for the enthusiastic and rapid conquest of new lands and peoples. Some few adventurers were destined to find wealth and prominence, but the great number, if they did not lose their lives, were quickly and permanently ruined.

In the first volume cited above, the author has sketched in detail the lives of some of the more fortunate of the Spanish *Conquistadores*, including Cortés, the conqueror of Mexico; Pizarro, the conqueror of Peru; Balboa, the discoverer of the Pacific, and Valdivia, the conqueror of Chile. The names of many others might have been added

to this list, and most certainly the name of Quesada, the conqueror of New Granada. But though the work is not sufficiently inclusive, it is done well and is interesting. A few mistakes in fact have crept in, there is no index, and the title of the book would have been more accurate if the words "Spanish America" had been substituted for "South and Central America."

As the Spanish conquest proceeded, it became necessary to consider seriously the treatment that should be accorded the natives. Naturally large numbers of Indians lost their lives in battle with the Europeans, many died from the dreaded diseases of the white man, others starved to death, and large numbers were enslaved and died under the cruel labor system. But many survived to be Christianized and civilized. The problem of the Spanish government was, therefore, to early decide upon a definite and uniform Indian policy in the Western Hemisphere. The result was the introduction of the *repartimiento* system whereby large numbers of natives were assigned to individual Spaniards in the colonies to be held in trust (but not as slaves), and civilized. One phase of this scheme was known as the *encomienda* and provided for the assigning of natives to certain persons for agricultural labor. A second phase was called the *mita* and provided for the employment of Indians in the mines and pearl fisheries.

The second volume under review deals chiefly with the *encomienda* system as applied in Espaniola (Haiti), and New Spain (Mexico), though the facts are also applicable to other parts of the Spanish colonies. The author has attempted to reexamine the whole Indian policy of Spain in the New World, and to correct some of the misstatements and exaggerations of Las Casas and subsequent writers. The work is scholarly and painstaking, and constitutes a real contribution to the history of Spanish colonial conditions in the first half of the sixteenth century. Six appendices, an excellent bibliography, and a detailed index add greatly to the value of the volume.

A. CURTIS WILGUS.

University of South Carolina.

Cotton Mather: Keeper of the Puritan Conscience. By Ralph Philip and Louise Boas. Harper Brothers, New York, 1928, 271 pp.

Americans once revered their forefathers, then they reviled them, and today they are seeking to understand them. Books like this illustrate contemporary American letters as well as the past they attempt to describe. A movement already grown powerful is encouraging the exploration of the roots and branches of the American literary mind. Fortunately reinterpreters of American literature recognize the need for a close acquaintance with the social background. It is to be hoped that students of American society will not overlook the work of their contemporaries in the specialized field of letters.

Cotton Mather, according to the authors, was dominated by his father who fashioned nearly all that was important in the son's life, "his political activity, his quarrels, his religion, his church, his literary activity." In the light of modern psychology one can discern in Mather's case "the intimate connection between religious fervor and sexual hyperesthesia." He squandered his intellectual resources in the satisfaction of a fruitless curiosity.

We can be grateful to the authors for a more balanced narrative of the witchcraft episode than we are accustomed to read. The background is more important than any of the individual actors in the tragedy, headliners though the Mathers were. Thomas Brattle, who used Robert Calef as a mouthpiece, is severely criticized for lacking the courage to print his letter at a time when it might have stayed the persecution. This is an important estimate because Brattle's rationalism is sometimes flatteringly posed beside the intolerance of the Mathers.

Cotton Mather was comparatively modern in the treatment of his children who were not forced to attend his church; his educational ideas were ahead of his time. Is it not possible to see (which the authors do not) in the liberal treatment of his children a reaction that resulted

from the experience with his father, Increase Mather? Mather's scientific attitude, I think, is insufficiently appraised. It was an age when much of the old lumber was used in building the House of Reason wherein eighteenth-century man was to dwell. One of its chief architects, Sir Isaac Newton, carried along some of that lumber which others were ready to discard. Although Cotton Mather carried more than a man of his training should have, he found room for ideas that placed him among the more enlightened of his day. Although his direct influence on subsequent generations may be negligible, as his biographers suggest, indirectly (through Benjamin Franklin, for example), Cotton Mather's voice may yet be heard.

MICHAEL KRAUS.

College of the City of New York.

The American Party Battle. By C. A. Beard. The Macmillan, New York, 1928, 150 pp. \$1.50.

This little volume is an epitome of American political history. The author of *The Rise of American Civilization*, *Economic Interpretation of the Constitution*, *Economic Origins of Jeffersonian Democracy*, and numerous other scholarly and popular works delights us with an air-plane view of the history of the two groups which amid various changes of name and motivation have jostled for the control of our national destinies since the founding of the republic.

Followers of Dr. Beard are already familiar with his analysis of the Hamilton-Jefferson era, with his emphasis on the tariff in the early history of the third Republican party and his insistence on the complete continuity of the dualism of our party history.

Dr. Beard paints his picture in broad but deft strokes. In many respects the panorama is mellower than some of his earlier canvases. The harsh tones of controversy have given way to the gentle humor of confidence. Though brief, his treatment is crisp and compressed. Much that is no longer new is yet Dr. Beard's own. No one, perhaps, has made as many penetrating contributions to American party history as he.

There is one part of his volume over which we might like to linger longer and that is his introductory chapter on the nature of parties. The economic patterns of our social life are still shown to be at the core, but there is greater recognition of racial, religious and cultural overtones. Rather more than other chapters, this one is not old wine in a new bottle, and we may therefore be pardoned if we express the wish that there were more of it. Perhaps, also, we may venture to doubt the Hadley theory of racial hydraulics (p. 11) and that "nearly all newspapers are affiliated with political parties" (p. 27).

J. D. McGOLDRICK.

Columbia University.

The Road to Oregon: A Chronicle of the Great Emigrant Trail. By W. J. Ghent. Longmans, Green and Company, New York, 1929. xvi, 274 pp.

The history of the trans-Mississippi West like that of every section of the United States is being rewritten largely because in the past we have viewed our problem too narrowly and partly because new materials of great importance have been brought to light. Nowhere, perhaps, is this more true than in connection with the Oregon Trail. Parkman's *The Oregon and California Trail*, a book that has had countless thousands of readers was published more than eighty years ago. Admirable as its content is it omits much about the Trail that is vitally significant to the student of westward migration. Other more recently published works, notably H. M. Chatenden's *The American Fur Trade of the Far West*, James Christy Bell, Jr.'s *Opening a Highway to the Pacific, 1838-1846*, and Allan Nevins' *Fremont, The World's Greatest Adventurer*, all excellent studies, contain much material dealing with the Trail, but are not extended accounts of the farmers' pathway to the northwest. For such a detailed history we turn to the volume under review.

Mr. Ghent is a master workman, for his volume combines literary qualities with judicious selection of material and accuracy of statement. In the twelve chapters which comprise the bulk of the volume he portrays the work and life of the trapper-explorer, the real pathmakers of the west, of the missionaries who led the way for the crawling caravans of emigrants who with their ox-drawn covered wagons and herds of live-stock made their way across the plains and through the Rockies to the fertile valleys of the Pacific Northwest. He pictures the life of the emigrant, of his constant danger from Indian attack, to storm and flood, and to the ravishes of disease and sometimes starvation. For those who desire exact information about where the Trail and the many branches that led from it ran Mr. Ghent has made provision by means of both text and map. The coming of the Mormons, the California gold rush, the introduction of overland postal facilities, the Pony Express, the Overland stage and its decline with the building of the first trans-continental railroad all contribute to the absorbing story Mr. Ghent has told.

The volume is remarkably free from errors. In fact, the reviewer has caught only one, namely, on page 242. Here T. D. Judah is given credit for organizing the Central Pacific Company. He was instrumental in organizing it, but the real organizer was Leland Stanford.

Among other things Mr. Ghent conclusively shows that Dr. Marcus Whitman has been defamed by those who have attempted to besmirch his character and detract from his contribution to the settlement of the Oregon territory. Whitman, he shows, perhaps more than any other single person, aided and encouraged the emigrant to get to the northwest.

For material Mr. Ghent has drawn heavily upon journals and travel books of the trapper era, and upon the diaries and reminiscences of emigrants. Thirty-odd reproductions from rare old prints illuminate the textual material.

Superlatives in any review are perhaps unwarranted, but every person interested in the development of the west is under deep obligation to Mr. Ghent for this dramatic and authentic volume.—C.

American Press Opinion. By Allan Nevins. D. C. Heath & Company, New York, 1928. xxv, 598 pp.

The reader is doubly fortunate in the editor of this volume, who adds to the distinction of being one of the most intelligent of American newspaper men, that of his position as an outstanding social historian of American life. Mr. Nevins, though still a young man, has been for some years one of the editors of the *New York World* and has had contacts in an academic capacity with the undergraduates of three of our largest universities. As the explanatory sub-title of this latest work of his states, *American Press Opinion* is a record of the influence which has radiated from the editorial chair of the American newspaper office from 1785 to 1928. This influence has frequently been a powerful force in public affairs, sometimes in restraint, sometimes in pushing men to action, and has increasingly recorded the trend of popular opinion.

In mechanical features, the volume is an admirable piece of editing. The preface, with a clear-cut statement of the significance of good journalism to the true interpretation of history; the well-arranged list of editorials, with bracketed titles supplied where such did not occur in the original; and the judicious division of the long period into four parts, all help make the volume enjoyable and understandable reading. The editor has made the best compromise between flinging the editorials at the reader without introduction and introducing them so fully as to make their perusal unnecessary, by heading each section with a most curiosity-provoking short essay upon the "American Press and Public Opinion" for the period to follow. These essays say enough, but not too much, and lead one to search eagerly for the leaders of the period. Nor does this periodizing of the subject-matter destroy the sense of continuity which should always be present in good historical writing, for Mr. Nevins, true historian that he is, makes the connection with his period-introduction.

Few will quarrel with the editor's main thesis after a careful perusal of the editorials, which he has selected with such painstaking care. In his preface he has emphasized the fact that, contrary to popular opinion, the value of American editorial writing is not solely temporary; that the editors have frequently, even in the early days, produced prose of distinguished style: forceful, vigorous, graceful, and sparkling.

Mr. Nevins is modest in thus explaining why he has been interested in preparing such a collection. Had he done only enough to establish his assertions as stated above, there would be ample justification for such a book. But he has done much more than that. He has taken the reader into those fierce conflicts of opinion which have beset our path to national greatness; he has succeeded in dramatizing that sometimes dull and prosaic thing which we call "American History." As we read the blistering paragraphs of Peter Porcupine and follow his opinions of lotteries, of John Adams, and of B. F. Bache, we seem to be actually living in those far-off days. We read of the excitement over the Embargo and the Chesapeake Affair, and of the determined stand of Editor Coleman against a second war with England, of his opposition to enlistments which almost ended in his ruin; we see two sides to the apparently weak or treacherous surrender of Hull at Detroit and learn a number of possible remedies for the business depression of 1819. Through it all, as we read on, through the slavery controversy and the nullification turmoil into the Civil War days and beyond, we gain a new impression of closeness to the event, of the persistence of a body of strongly expressed, clear opinion, which keeps us awake and interested to the last. Exciting times! Critical situations! Narrowly averted dangers! Such are the reactions with which one reads the pulsating language of Niles, Greeley, Bennet, and of Godkin.

"Twas a vivid, restless spirit, this American opinion as voiced in the pages of the press, assisted by a long tradition of freedom, made more arresting and colorful by men who could really write. And the objection which some might allege to the making of this collection, namely, that too frequently the newspapers were the subsidized organs of political parties, such as the Washington *National Intelligencer* and the Washington *Globe*, only makes what the editors of those journals had to say doubly important, though perhaps it did lessen the spontaneity and sincerity of their respective points-of-view.

Mr. Nevins' critical remarks concerning the various tendencies in American journalism since 1900, a period of marked change and of many innovations, form a masterpiece of conciseness, and should be read by all who have found the recent tendencies filled with a mass of confusing and often conflicting "ballyhoo." The picture, as the editor shows us, though full of regrettable tendencies, is not so bad as it has been painted. A number of cartoons from the pens of Nast and McCutcheon and Opper enliven the pages, while due attention is given the development of the weekly "liberal journal."

The value of the collection to the student and teacher of American History should be extremely great; here is a judicious representation of what the American reading public, which read the newspaper far more than anything else, was confronted with each day, and doubtless frequently translated into action. We should like very much to know how influential, from the standpoint of action at the polls, in the presenting of petitions to Congress, and in the selection of candidates for office, the masterpieces of journalism here presented have been. Unfortunately, we cannot know this with exactness, but we may assume that as a maker of opinion the American newspaper has dwarfed any other influence whatsoever. And if any one may prefer to look through the "yellow files" himself to gain further light upon American press opinion, such is a worthy object. However, it is doubtful, in view of the limited time and the pressing duties with which the teacher of history is confronted, the picture would be in any way improved. Every student of American life should see this book.

Adelphia College.

COURTNEY HALL.

Belgian Problems Since the War. By Louis Pierard, Member of the Belgian Parliament. New Haven, Yale University Press. 1929. x, 106 pp. \$2.00.

This book is a collection of six lectures delivered by Louis Pierard before the Institute of Politics at Williamstown in 1928. The material reflects the fact that it was presented orally, for it is of a popular nature, containing those general statements so common in lectures and omitting detailed information. The book is, however, a useful one, written in a clear, simple English, which smacks from time to time of the foreign.

Monsieur Pierard is a socialist and his book reflects his political affiliations. His title, "Belgian Problems Since the War," is hardly a just one, for aside from one chapter on the linguistic difficulties between Flemings and Walloons and the mere mention of a few other problems, such as the stabilization of the franc, the author devotes all his time to Belgian Socialism. One will find a much more scholarly discussion of Belgium's post-war social problems in *La Belgique Restaurée* (1926), edited by Ernest Mahaim.

But if one takes the book for what it is, one may read it with profit. M. Pierard's discussion of how workingmen spend their leisure time is very good. He is the author of a bill which provides for the creation of a commission to deal with this problem. The best section of the book is the treatment of the *Parti Ouvrier Belge*. Many Americans have undoubtedly formed distorted pictures of this organization from Mr. Thomas Harrison Reed's description of it in his *Government and Politics of Belgium* (1924). M. Pierard, although partisan, has described this party in an excellent manner. He has shown that it is not just a political organization, but a part of a larger socialist movement, which includes co-operatives, trade unions, mutual insurance societies, and cultural institutions. He points out that under the leadership of the redoubtable socialist leader, Anseelé, socialists of Ghent have gone into business for themselves—not in a co-operative way, but as capitalists. Since 1903 they have acquired seven textile works, a printing house, a foundry, a stone factory, a construction company, and a fishing fleet. Such a development leads immediately to interesting speculations concerning the abolition of private property.

M. Pierard's first chapter is devoted to the Flemish movement, which so few Americans understand or know about. He explains the situation—that half the population of Belgium speaks Flemish (Dutch) and half speaks Wallonian (French). In the early years of Belgium's history the French language predominated, but in recent years the Flemings have been demanding linguistic equality—and getting it. Radicals in both Wallonia and Flanders demand more autonomy (some even the division of Belgium) for the solution of this problem. That this tendency is growing is witnessed by the fact that M. Pierard himself favors such a move. He is, however, a "good Belgian," and expresses the belief that Belgium is a nation destined to live and to play a great rôle as an intellectual "transformer" between France, Germany, and England.

S. B. CLOUGH.

Columbia University.

Book Notes

Professor William K. Boyd, of Duke University, has performed a most useful service to both scholars and the general public in bringing out the volume entitled *Some Eighteenth-Century Tracts Concerning North Carolina* (Edwards and Broughton Company, Raleigh, 1927. viii, 508 pp.). Of the fourteen documents which compose the body of the text, all relate to the period prior to 1800. Moreover, nearly all of them are difficult to obtain. As the following titles indicate, the pamphlets cover a wide range of subjects: A True and Faithful Narrative of the Proceedings of the House of Burgesses; William Borden's Addresses to the people and the Burgesses; John Rutherford on the Importance of the Colonies to Great Britain; Henry McCulloh's Representations Relative to the Colonies; Maurice Moore on the Justice and Policy of Taxing the

Colonies; The Searey Petition and the Sims Address; Hermon Husband's Remarks on Religion; Hermon Husband's Impartial Relation; Hermon Husband's Fan for Fanning; Reverend George Micklejohn's Sermon to Tryon and His Troops; A Table of North Carolina Taxes; Informations Concerning North Carolina; The Independent Citizen; A Petition to the President and Congress. Each pamphlet is prefaced by admirable introductory notes.

From time to time there appear accounts by missionaries of the several denominations who have had experiences in converting the Indians of America to Christianity. Such is a book recently published (1928) by Flemming H. Revell Co., entitled, *The Indians of South America and the Gospel*, written by Reverend Alex. Rattray Hay. The author is the Superintendent of Indian work of the Inland South American Missionary Union, which is a Protestant inter-denominational organization. He has compressed into 167 pages much interesting information concerning the life and customs of several nearly primitive tribes of South American Indians. At the same time, he has summarized the various activities of missionary organizations and has given some idea of the success which missionaries have already achieved in the conversion of the natives. Many interesting experiences and hardships and numerous anecdotes are given. Moreover, much valuable information is offered for those who intend to carry the gospel to the interior of South America, particularly to parts of Brazil, Bolivia, Paraguay, and Peru. The author shows that one outstanding result of missionary activity in these regions is that a comparatively large number of tribes have been found that have never come in contact with any form of Christianity, and in one or two instances unknown tribes have been discovered.

Diplomatic Europe Since the Treaty of Versailles, by Count Carlo Sforza (Yale University Press, New Haven, 1928. 130 pp.), consists of a series of six lectures, delivered by the former Minister for Foreign Affairs of Italy at the Williamstown Institute of Politics in 1927. The lectures cover the post-war relations between France and Germany, between Poland and Germany, between the succession states of Austria-Hungary, between the Allied Powers and Turkey, and between the newly created Baltic States. The concluding lecture is devoted to the position of the Roman Catholic Church. As an attempt on the part of the Count to record "the aspect and the trend of some events" to which he "could partly bear personal witness," the lectures are interesting and important. They picture post-war Europe as seen through the eyes of an Italian diplomat who played a not unimportant part during the World War. But throughout the volume we cannot help feeling that in spite of his pleas for international comity Sforza has not gotten entirely over his war-time psychology. He is too good an Italian to forebear taking digs at Austria and the Hapsburgs and Germany. Moreover, a number of statements in the book seem peculiar when one bears in mind that the Count once made a remark to the effect that diplomacy was synonymous with sincerity!

An Outline History of the Great War, by G. V. Carey and H. S. Scott (At the University Press, Cambridge, 1928. 279 pp.), is a brief narrative of the main British campaigns on the Western Front and in Italy, the Balkans and Asia Minor. Three of the twenty-five chapters deal with naval operations, while the Eastern Front is left entirely out of consideration. Both of the authors were officers in the British army during the war, and they have written down and interpreted the various events from the point of view of participants rather than of professional historians. No attempt is made to discuss the causes of the war, and the book ends with the Armistice. Since the compilation was made in the hope that it might "appeal especially to the younger generation to whom the war is scarcely even a memory," its whole tenor is rather simple

and condensed. Moreover, since the authors believe that "to realize what the war *felt like* is even more important than to know its events in outline," they have allowed mud and death to stand out in clearer relief than glamor and glory. Nevertheless, they have found room to record the important fact that a second lieutenant of the 8th Battalion, The Rifle Brigade, 14th Division, "gave his life in earning for the New Army the proud distinction of their first Victoria Cross." Eight illustrations and seventeen black-and-white maps complete the volume, which is attractively bound in black and gold.

An Outline of Europe Since 1815, by Frank Williams Prescott, of Tulare University (Henry Holt and Company, New York, 1928), is a ninety-seven-page syllabus of European History arranged to parallel Prof. C. D. Hazen's *Europe Since 1815* and J. C. Gooch's *History of Modern Europe*. The organization appears to be practical and the outline is detailed enough to be of real value both to the teacher and the students. An appendix contains select topics and references on various aspects of the social and economic history of Europe during the period covered. There is also a series of seven excellent map studies. In addition to being a handy guide, the outline should also prove to be rather popular as a review book.

In 1926 the prolific German historian, Hermann Oncken, published a three-volume work on the Rhine policy of Napoleon III and the origins of the Franco-Prussian War of 1870-1871. The first 120 pages of the first volume served as a commentary upon the official documents which make up the remainder of the three volumes. These documents were found in the archives in Vienna, in Berlin, and in several of the South German states, and are now made public for the first time. They shed an entirely new light on the continental diplomacy of the years from 1863 to 1870, and prove conclusively that "French national tradition" and "Napoleonic ambition" were the prime factors in bringing on the conflict. French "security" demanded the acquisition of the west bank of the Rhine as protection against "Prussian preponderance," and Louis Napoleon set out to accomplish the annexation. Bismarck was ready to accept the challenge. Fortunately for the English-speaking public, Edwin H. Zeydel has translated the author's commentary, which is now available under the title of *Napoleon III and the Rhine*, by Hermann Oncken (Alfred A. Knopf, New York, 1928. xxiii, 208 pp.). The text of the documents, however, has not been translated. A sixteen-page foreword by Professor Ferdinand Schevill adds considerably to the significance of the book. No student of Franco-German relations can afford to be without this valuable and, incidentally, attractively bound volume.

The Northern Boundary of Indiana, by Mrs. Frank J. Sheehan (pp. 289-321) and *Evansville's Channels of Trade and the Secession Movement, 1850-1865*, by Daniel W. Sneed (pp. 325-391), represent numbers six and seven of volume eight of the publications of the Indiana Historical Society. Mrs. Sheehan has traced in considerable detail the political story of the fixing of the northern boundary of Indiana, whereby that commonwealth gained a ten-mile strip at the expense of Michigan. Mr. Sneed's article is a veritable storehouse of information relative to the beginnings of Evansville, its early packet lines, its incoming river traffic, and the effect of the Civil War upon this traffic. More than half the article is devoted to the effect of the Wabash and Erie Canal and the Evansville and Illinois Railroad on the trade of the Ohio River town. The section entitled Trade and Politics is especially enlightening.

Mary Newton Stannard's volume, *The Story of Virginia's First Century* (J. B. Lippincott Company, Philadelphia, 1928. vi, 331 pp.), presents in interesting fashion the history of Virginia to 1700. While it abounds in quotations

from source materials, little that was not already known is presented. Illness of the author, the publisher tells us, prevented the inclusion of a bibliography. Approximately half of the twenty-seven illustrations are portraits.

Every person interested in present-day problems and in discovering methods of handling these problems will welcome Rexford Guy Tugwell's *Industry's Coming of Age* (Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York, 1927. ix, 274 pp.). After a brief chapter, showing the progress of production, the author discusses in some detail the theories or causes which have been suggested to account for this increased productivity under the head of general causes and technical causes. He then summarizes the outstanding barriers to productivity and outlines what he thinks ought to be done if industry is to come to maturity. His last chapter, "Getting What We Want From Industry," suggests what the "typical" American wants from industry.

All too long our economists and legislators, seemingly bound hand and foot by tradition, have either failed to realize the nature of the tremendous social and economic changes going on in the world, or else realizing, have ignored or tried to escape realities. As a consequence, our education and legislation, geared for a social-economic world that is no more, does not fit our present complex world. The vast majority of our economists today, for example, in both their writing and teaching are expounding "principles" that apply to a mid-nineteenth-century world; of the present social-economic revolution which is going on about them they teach or write little. To the "old school" economist, therefore, Professor Tugwell's book is a challenge. But it is much more. It is a plea that we understand industry in order that we may control it positively for the benefit of mankind. His thought on this point is admirably expressed in the very last pages of the book: "My own idea is that we might grow away from poverty and the other ugly concomitants of industrialism and

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This thought-provoking volume ought to do for the economists what James Harvey Robinson's *New History* did for the historians.

Teachers will welcome the new edition of the Robinson and Beard *Outlines of European History*, Part II (Ginn and Company, Boston, 1927. 819, lxxi pp. \$2.12.), which covers from the seventeenth century to the present. It has all the merits of the old edition, with some excellent new features. An introduction dealing with the eve of the seventeenth century and treating such subjects as Expansion, Renaissance, Medieval Empire, and the Protestant Revolt is furnished by Professor Shotwell. In the body of the book the usual, and some unusual, facts are presented in a fresh, easy manner. Chapters are divided into sections and concluded with questions, which will ease the teaching problem. Well-chosen pictures add concreteness. One is impressed with a point of view which does not insult the intelligence of the pupil or teacher. The twentieth century gets about two hundred pages, and in those pages some things are said that take the book far out of the ordinary textbook pap. Science gets intelligent attention; the background, issues, and aftermath of the war are told without fear or favor. There is the usual complete bibliography and index.

The valuable series of collected readings published by the University of Chicago Press now includes a volume of *Readings in General Psychology*, compiled and edited by Edward S. Robinson and Florence Richardson Robinson (607 pp. \$4.00.). The extracts cover a wide range of materials and interests, from "problems of psychology" to accounts both specific and general of the nervous system, reflex action and instinct, habit, the special senses, imagery and association, language, thinking, emotion, control of action, personality, individual differences and their measurement. A variety of other topics are treated in the twenty-two chapters and the entire body of material is made readily available by an excellent table of contents and indexes of subjects and names. The volume was prepared primarily for classes in psychology, but in these days of the "new history" and the social studies, when teachers in those fields cannot afford to neglect psychology or even to confine their psychological studies to educational applications, a collection such as this will prove very handy and useful.

With the exception of slight emendations, the text of the new edition of the late President Wilson's admirable little volume, entitled *Division and Reunion, 1829-1889* (Longmans, Green & Co., New York, 1926. xxv, 336 pp.), has not been changed. The suggestions or front matter and the chapter bibliographies, however, have been recast completely so as to include the more important references which have been published since 1890. The index has also been revised. Since its first appearance this book has gone through more than thirty-five printings and the new edition ought to prove even more serviceable.

In his *Short History of Western Civilization* (Macmillan Co., New York, 1927. ix, 246 pp.), Professor Hattersley purposes, for the improvement of citizenship, "to trace the origin and growth of that European civilization which constitutes the atmosphere, intellectual and moral, in which the citizen of today has to live his life." The result of the effort is a survey differing from the ordinary textbook only in its brevity. The material, the arrangement, and the point of view are duly conventional. No new interpreta-

tion is suggested. The author, while admitting the unsatisfactory character of such terms as *Renaissance* and *Industrial Revolution*, persists in the old usage. As far as the latter is concerned, he limits it for practical purposes "to the period extending from the accession of George III to the passing of the Great Reform Bill." The bulk of the space is devoted to what is generally called the modern world. Some impression of the material included may be gained from the chapter headings: Sea Power, The Commercial Revolution, Religious Toleration, Nationality and Democracy, and the like. Though the book might be of value to the "man in the street," it is hard to see any other possible beneficiary. That the limitations of space are not entirely to blame can be easily attested by a glance at Marvin's *The Living Past*, which managed to be informative and original. Appended to the book are a "Note on the History of the United States," a "Comparative Chart of Western Progress," which is ridiculous, and a "Select List of Books" limited almost exclusively to English titles. This provincialism is evident throughout the book where English history is drawn upon heavily for texts and examples. The index is serviceable.—C. F. MULLETT.

The jacket of Simeon Strunsky's *King Akhnaton* (Longmans Green, New York, 1928. 306 pp. \$2.50) is a pictorial epigram for the theme of the book. An Egyptian monarch's head appears in profile against a silhouette of Woodrow Wilson. When it is added that the book purports to be the memoir of one Bek, secretary to the Pharaonic Commission to Negotiate Peace with Syria, enough can be guessed of the contents for the purpose of this short review. Credit must be given to Mr. Strunsky for the many apt analogies he invents. Many, of course, are as broad as that of a King of Babel whose demand for the Left Bank of the Euphrates almost defeats the League of Aton. There are others, however, of such constantly diminishing obviousness that one's enjoyment of the tale increases in direct proportion to one's knowledge of Wilson's friends and enemies and the struggles in which they were involved. It should be added, also, that all is not parody or malice. Mr. Strunsky's love of irony and his highly urbane style are likely at first to mislead the reader, and his Olympian detachment perhaps lasts too long, but he catches the nobility and poetry of the close of the Wilson-Akhnaton drama, and one is grateful to him for the restraint and the humane refusal to pass judgment with which he draws the curtain. On the whole, the novel recommends itself as a purgative of wit and irony for historians who, in their obsession with the minutiae of the present, forgot the lessons of their own craft.—BARTLET BREBNER.

Teachers of the fundamental course in economics who have long felt the inadequacy of presenting the underlying principles by means of textbooks and lecture will gladly welcome *A Case Book for Economics*, by William Ernest Weld and Alvin S. Tostlebe (Ginn & Company, New York, 1927. xiii, 508 pp.).

The book brings together a large number of actual economic experiences so selected and presented as to give accurate pictures of many representative economic phenomena. The material has been procured from many sources. Business firms and individuals have generously contributed information on their practice and experience that must necessarily become part of an accurate description of economic life and a basis for valid theory. The cases are arranged according to an outline not unlike that followed by the ordinary text, under such headings as Money; Credit and Banking; Land, Labor, and Capital, as Productive Agents; Division of Labor; Localization of Industry; Speculation; Business Cycles; Transportation; Competitive Value and Price; International Trade; The Tariff; Profits; Rents; Interest; Wages; Public Finance. They may be used with any college textbook.

The authors frankly state that it is not their intention that the case method should entirely displace the standard text. In studying the cases the student often finds an

economic situation that he cannot explain, and he searches for an explanation in a text on principles. Thus the study of cases leads to purposeful reading of the formal treatise, particularly because the student has ever before him the challenge to understand a definite economic situation that he knows has been taken from the midst of the world's economic activities. While the idea of originating a case book for the teaching of economics is not original with the authors, they deserve high praise for putting the idea into practice and for bringing together such interesting and illustrative case material.

By selecting and editing *Hamiltonian Principles* (Little, Brown & Company, Boston, 1928. xix, 188 pp.) and *Jeffersonian Principles* (Little, Brown & Company, Boston, 1928. xxii, 161 pp.) James Truslow Adams has again rendered a useful service to teachers and students of American history. As the titles imply, Mr. Adams is not concerned with the lives of Hamilton and Jefferson, but with their minds and the principles which those minds evolved. Both volumes contain introductory notes which admirably summarize the outstanding ideas and principles of the two distinguished Americans. The passages or extracts following the introductions are carefully selected. No person interested in Hamilton or Jefferson or in the history of the period in which they lived should be without these handy compendiums.

In *The Geographical Basis of European History* (The Berkshire Studies in European History, Holt, New York, 1928. vii, 110 pp.), J. K. Wright, proceeding from a careful and accurate description of regional geography—Africo-Arabic, Alpine-Mediterranean, Northern European—relates the influences of geographical features to major movements in the history of Europe. He makes geography comprehensible in terms of history and history comprehen-

sible in terms of geography. A physiographic map of Europe, numerous maps illustrating particular theses, and a bibliography aid its usefulness. Recommended as an excellent short introduction to the historical geography of Europe.

In *The Post-War Mind of Germany and Other European Studies* (Clarendon Press, Oxford, 1927, 248 pp.) Professor C. H. Herford of Manchester has gathered together half a dozen literary essays which have interest for students of history. They seem various at first (the mind of post-war Germany, Dante and Milton, Shakespeare's influence on the Continent, a Russian Shakespearian, the culture of Bolshevik Russia, national and international ideals in the English poets), and indeed there is little to hold them together beyond the international affinities which are demonstrated. This sort of book seems a rash venture in some ways, for the title conceals essays which are worth attention and might better receive it in some other way. As it is, they are at once systematic and tentative so that they are valuable both for an arrangement of information and for provocative suggestion as to its interpretation. It is this fertility of suggestion which relieves the essays of a tendency towards academic assurance in demonstration. The essays are throughout based on broad and intimate scholarship, and the personal likes and dislikes revealed in them do not detract from their merit. Among the notable elements in the book are a fine tribute to Walter Rathenau; some remarkable analogies in the lives and works of Dante and Milton, the poet-statesmen; demonstration of Shakespeare's influence on the Russian poet Pushkin in founding Russian historical drama; a kindly appreciation of the new Russian "regional" studies; and well chosen examples of the better kind of nationalism and of internationalism in British poetry.

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Herbert Hoover, a Reminiscent Biography, by Will Irwin, Century Co., New York, 1928. 315 pp. Tastes in biographies have changed greatly in the direction of realism in this decade. The official biographies of both candidates in our last campaign were hailed as marking a new departure. But perhaps it would be asking too much of a hired portraitist to paint the subject in all his warts. This Hoover narrative is as thrilling and uplifting as an Horatio Alger tale and Mr. Irwin tells it well. After he once gets past the sloppy boyhood and college anecdotes, his descriptions of mining in Australia, the rebellions in China, the handling of stranded tourists in Europe in 1914, and of the Belgian relief in the three years which followed need no apology. It is a gripping human story. But the author cannot forget the purpose for which he is writing. When his hero's business carries him to foreign lands, we are hastily assured that "wherever Mr. Hoover worked he planted a nucleus of American methods, created a demand for American goods" (p. 107). No matter how many homes he established in other lands (just a habit of his), "the mother home" was always the one at Stanford (p. 110). No matter how far from home he went, he always sent back for Stanford men (p. 79). "He remained Yankee of the Yankees—as American as baseball or apple pie." These silly little touches abound (see particularly page 123) and mar an otherwise entertaining, if not incisive, volume.—J. McG.

We have received from E. P. Dutton & Company three volumes of *The Barkground of History* series, edited by C. H. Hartmann. They are *Memoirs of Captain Carleton* (xxviii, 301 pp., \$5.00), *Memoirs of Leonora Christina* (xii, 342 pp., \$5.00), and Mme. de la Fayette's *Secret History of Henrietta, Princess of England, and Memoirs of the Court of France, 1688-89* (xxix, 264 pp., \$3.75). Each volume is prefaced by one or more introductions, some old, some new, and the historical materials are well printed and furnished with occasional notes. The introductions do not presume to great thoroughness in historical analysis and estimation, but the memoirs thus far chosen are ones which have been difficult to obtain. Captain Carleton was an English military officer who fought against the Dutch in 1672 and afterwards joined fortunes with William of Orange. He describes well his adventures, particularly in the Peterborough expedition to Spain, where he was made prisoner and given leisure to observe the country and its inhabitants. Leonora Christina was the unfortunate child of Christian IV of Denmark whose marriage to Count Ulfeld embroiled her in many vicissitudes of the liquidation of the Thirty Years' War in the Baltic, and consigned her to twenty-two years of imprisonment in the Blue Tower at Copenhagen. The interest in her memoirs is personal rather than historical. Henrietta, Duchesse d'Orleans, was the beautiful sister of Charles II, Stuart, and served as a diplomatic go-between for the intricate and secret negotiations between him and Louis XIV. Mme. de la Fayette gives an inside picture of the early days of the magnificent court created by the Sun King. In all, then, this series revives the curiosities of history rather than matter nearer the core, and does so for a general rather than a particular public.

So far as we know there has as yet been no really successful attempt on more than a small scale to combine the history of England and the history of its literature. At first sight the task does not seem extraordinarily formidable, but anyone who has tried it or tried to combine the two in teaching will remember the difficulties and pitfalls. Mr. Bernard Groom in his *Literary History of England* (Longmans, Green and Company, New York, 1929, xi, 393 pp., \$2.00) has made the attempt again (his project is not so novel as he imagines) and has achieved only a moderate success. The conservatives in both camps are likely to see in this confirmation of their opinion that social and literary history are too diverse to marry in a single volume. It may be that this is so, but recollections of Trevelyan's happy use of literary allusion in his history

and of the fact that the most enduring literary criticism has been that which was fortified by appropriate connection with historical background, make one unwilling to give up hope. Examination of Mr. Groom's volume leads to the suggestion that the problem is largely one of book-making. His effort fails considerably in two ways. First, his principle of selection of literary figures is perhaps even more open to criticism than is usual where an anthology is in question. Secondly, he seems to quote much more liberally than is justified by the size of his book. One would have preferred more history or a more catholic inclusion of authors. Presumably there is no end in sight of manuals for students. Presumably, also, there is some inhibition against their reading more than one book. If they must cram and "survey" and insist on one book, it must be arid and encyclopedic and in the logical conclusion be a mere series of lists of names and things. Up till now we have not even in more than one volume the combination monograph we want of literary and social history. An alternative is the combination of a social history and the literature itself, with plentiful assistance from the teacher. This discussion is not meant to lead to ignoring the merits of Mr. Groom's book. In general it might be said of it that it continually reveals qualities which the technical difficulty has defeated. The medieval section is disappointingly brief, but early modern times in England are seen in an appropriate relation to Europe in general, and, in drama at least, the predecessors of Shakespeare receive a neat, if belated, recognition. Milton receives the space that is his due. After 1700 considerations of space begin to do their work and our insistence on contemporaneity brings about a final chapter that is almost an indiscriminate catalogue.

The Clarendon Press has this year issued a second edition of A. S. Turberville's *English Men and Manners in the Eighteenth Century* (xxiv, 539 pp.). There is not a great deal of difference between this and the 1926 edition. It contains a more detailed bibliographical note, the chapter on the artists has been recast so as to give more space to architecture and sculpture and to include water-color, and some small corrections and alterations have been made. Inasmuch as the first edition of this satisfying and deservedly popular book did not receive attention in these columns, readers are reminded that it is a picture of England between 1702 and 1783, chiefly as reflected in the lives of outstanding persons in that period. Its author refers to it as a sketch whose purpose is to tempt readers to more particular interest, but his modesty is a little too severe. What he has written is an excellent social history of the upper classes and the intellectuals of his period using the "portrait-gallery" method, and basing it upon a short chronological chapter and a long, lucid, and systematic survey of social groupings. It is natural to find a whole chapter for Pitt, but a welcome surprise to have another for the philanthropists, Oglethorpe and Howard, even if one would have liked the inclusion of Coram. It is pleasant also to find cabinet-makers and potters among the artists, and that Priestley has earned a place among the divines. From frontispiece to the last chapter the debt to the increasingly famous gifts of Mr. John Johnson in selecting and incorporating illustrations is made manifest. Thanks to him the Clarendon Press has forged far to the front in the matter of producing inexpensive illustrated books, and one could wish that the convention might be established of placing his name on the title-page of such books as this, instead of leaving it to the gratitude of authors' prefaces, or, in addition, as is now the case, to the humble colophon "Printer to the University."

E. T. Smith's *A New Approach to European History. Students' Guide Sheets* (University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1929, xiv, 122 pp.) is an attempt to present the most important "tacks" that the world has taken in the development of our modern civilization. It is primarily an outline guide, but unlike most books of its nature it has very few dates and names. On the other hand, emphasis is placed

on large movements—from “how primitive man laid a basis for civilization” to “how Europe expanded overseas.” The idea is a brilliant one and one quite in keeping with “new history.” Nevertheless, one can scarcely refrain from criticizing the author’s failure to be more specific and exact. For instance, his reference to humanism will leave the mind of the student a complete blank, and his emphasis on the coming of the Ottoman Turks as the explanation of Europe’s expansion overseas is quite overstressed.—S. B. C.

William Stearns Davis, *The Whirlwind* (The Macmillan Company, New York, 1928, 527 pp.). *The French Revolution as Told in Fiction* (American Library Association, Chicago, 1927, 38 pp.). Thomas Carlyle, *The French Revolution* (Dutton & Company, New York, 1929, 2 vols.).

William Stearns Davis needs no introduction to Americans who kept abreast of historical novels. *The Prince of Wittenberg*, *The Beauty of the Purple*, and *Gilman of Redford* have made his name familiar to the reading public. *The Whirlwind*, a Story of the French Revolution, is very characteristic of the author’s works. Davis has attempted to portray in forms true to history but in vivid colors the life of France from the end of the *Ancient Régime* to Thermidor. The novel is divided into four books, “The Good Old Times,” and then “Liberty,” “Equality,” “Fraternity,” the motto of the Revolutionists. The story centers around the activity of René de Massac, a noble of the Court of Versailles, who loses his position in society because of his marriage to a commoner, Virginia Durand. Davis gives de Massac an important rôle in every important event of the Revolution of 1794, and thus establishes situations which enable him to sketch the history of the period and to introduce leading personages. A detailed criticism would uncover numerous errors in emphasis and fact, but on the whole the novel gives one a good general impression of the “Whirlwind.”

Professor Davis’ booklet, *The French Revolution as Told in Fiction*, is an admirable discussion of the best novels of the Revolution, and should be of use to teachers of history in guiding their students’ reading.

Any very lengthy mention of Thomas Carlyle’s *The French Revolution* would be quite superfluous in this place. If one wants an interesting criticism of the book, one should turn to Hilaire Belloc’s introduction to this edition. The house of Dutton publishes this work as part of a series in which Boswell’s *Life of Johnson*, Pepys’ *Diary*, Marco Polo’s *Travels*, etc., have already appeared.—S. B. C.

In 1924 the American Committee on the Rights of Religious Minorities sent a joint Anglo-American Commission to Transylvania to study the question of religious minorities in that region. The report of that commission has been published in a book entitled *The Religious Minorities in Transylvania* (Beacon Press, Boston, 1925, 174 pp.). The book is composed largely of documentary evidence obtained by the Commission. A large portion of the space is devoted to the economic difficulty in which Transylvania churches were placed by the Rumanian land reforms.—S. B. C.

In 1714, 1832, and 1906 the Conservative Party of Great Britain was in even a worse condition than it is today, says Sir Charles Petrie in the November number of the *Nineteenth Century*. Yet each time it has risen Phoenix-like from its ashes. Today, while the position of Conservatism is serious, it is not hopeless. The foundations of the party are essentially sound and its future now depends on the superstructure erected thereon. One thing is certain—the policy of “Safety First” must be abandoned. The Party now being in the Opposition, it must show what its principles and program are, and in what way these differ from the Government. Its great opportunity lies in a constructive social legislation and in a reform program.

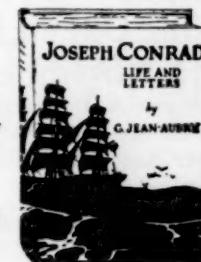
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In the November issue of *The Journal of Geography*, Douglas C. Ridgley, in "Two New Courses of Study in Geography," discusses the new courses for elementary schools issued by New York State and New York City. Lora M. Dexheimer discusses "Picture Study in Geography" in connection with textbook lessons, reviews, product maps, journeys with pictures, tests, and source materials.

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 Albion, Robert G. *Introduction to military history*. N. Y.: Century. 444 pp. (21 p. bibl.). \$2.25.
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 Curti, Merle E. *The American peace crusade, 1815-1860*. Durham, N. C.: Duke Univ. Press. 258 pp. (12 p. bibl.). \$3.50.
 Davenport, Frances G. *European treaties bearing on the history of the United States and its dependencies, 1650-1697*. Wash., D. C.: Carnegie Inst. 392 pp. \$3.00.
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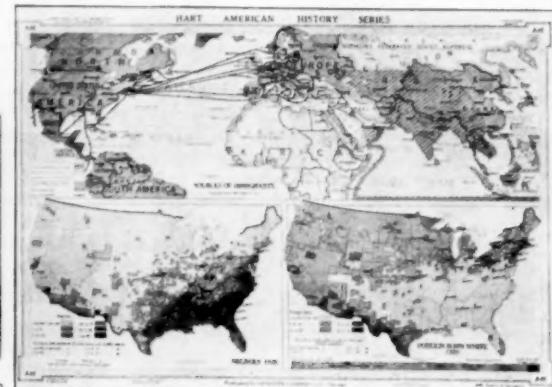
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